

THE CLEARING HOUSE

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Editorial

ENLISTING GRANDPARENTS IN THE YOUTH MOVEMENT

Anybody who has discovered the meaning of ugliness has discovered the meaning of beauty. We become aware of qualities in terms of their opposites. We know darkness as the absence of light and cold as the absence of heat. We discover that such opposites are the two extremes of some quality that we rarely find in a pure or absolute state. That is, you are not likely to see perfect beauty—there is always present a tinge of ugliness. You have never seen black that was absolute black, nor moral degradation that reached the ultimate zero.

It is logical and reasonable that a person who sets himself thinking hard on the problems of youth should soon discover the problems of old age. And it is not surprising if he should find that they are very similar problems in many respects. Indeed, they are *identical*, for life is all of a piece, and there can never be any *real* solution to youth's problems which do not solve those of old age. No youth has found the right answers if he has not positive assurance that what he is doing at seventeen will have some worth to him at seventy.

We who are young men are much aware of old men, for we can be sure of only one thing while we live—that we shall grow older every day. The child is father to the man, grandfather to the old man he may become. And we could not be concerned about what old age may hold for us without being interested in measuring somehow

what satisfaction it offers to those who are today's old folks. It is relevant to demand, What does life provide today for men and women anywhere the other side of fifty? There will be food and shelter, of course; but what will it guarantee of those dearer necessities? What justification is there now for the lines of the poet—

Grow old along with me!
The best is yet to be,
The last of life, for which the first was
made.
Our times are in his hand
Who said, "A whole I planned;
Youth shows but half. Trust God; see all
nor be afraid."

This is our thesis: The measure of any civilization is to be found in the way in which people spend the last thirty years of their lives. This seems too obvious, too axiomatic. It is only saying that you may judge a tree by its fruit, and that you must judge it by its *ripe* fruit, not by its green fruit or its blossoms.

It is an obvious thesis, but it requires defending because we have been too largely concerned with the blossoms. We have used what science we have for improving our schools, but we have not bothered to check these improvements by testing the quality of life after fifty. Among primitive peoples old folks are unwanted. The old grandfather of an Eskimo family, when he is too weak to hunt and too slow to keep up with the dog sledges, walks alone into the arctic night

and is not seen again. Among the tribes of the tropical islands old people are sometimes buried alive with elaborate ceremonies. In our own culture the old people fare a little better—but how much?

For hundreds of generations we have carried on a war. It is the war between youths and adults. It is a fruitless war, as all wars are. Neither side can ever win a permanent victory. Arbitration and compromise offer the only way to peace. Unless youths are reconciled by the concession of some privileges, there may be such a revolution of youth in America as there has been in Italy and Germany. Youth in revolt in the modern world lines up under the banners of fascism, for fascism is flags and bands, brass buttons and hollow promises, illusions founded in desperation, and power and privilege for the ones who wear the fascist symbol.

The war between youths and adults is a three-sided war in our times; for people who are just a little older than middle-aged have been disposed by the machines. The machines are in the service of the middle-aged group, and the youngsters and the oldsters alike are locked out, deprived of their fair rights and privileges. It would seem good strategy, then, for the young and the old to make common cause.

Indeed, sometimes there is a bond between these outcast generations. Clifford Odets gives one dramatic instance in his play lately current on Broadway, "Awake and Sing." It is the grandfather who alone can understand the young rebel's temperament, and who encourages him to do the thing he wants to do.

But I have no intention now of recommending that grandchildren and grandparents everywhere make war against their common enemy. There is a better way and one which seems to me to fit quite well the concept basic to our national life—*democracy*. Democracy is an ideal flexible enough to stand this much expansion: It can be made to mean a social plan where neither

youth nor age are deprived of the privilege of participation. "Equality of opportunity" means something more than opportunity for one age group and bitterness and futility for the others.

We are living in a social crisis when much is in the balance; nothing else will be worth much if we lose this ideal, democracy. One way to strengthen and preserve it is to guarantee opportunities for the old and the young to share its privileges and obligations.

Youth already has its defenders. Moreover, it is capable of doing something more than it has done for itself. There is no clearly defined "youth movement," but there are many organizations of youths, and these present great possibilities and great dangers. They present great dangers when their leaders conceive of youth as a state of special virtue and when they allow the idea that young people have some special magic for remaking the world. Sometimes you hear brave youngsters saying, "Look at the mess the older generation has made of the world! They have proved themselves incapable of running things. Why not give youth its chance?"

But the "older generation" cannot be indicted *en masse*. No one generation can be charged with the present crisis. Causes go back farther. The world got itself into this mess, if it is a "mess." It is just as reasonable to see the present crisis not as a breakdown but as a natural stage in the metamorphosis of a better world that is building itself. The principle of control, which we know as science, is a very new one, and we have not yet got our world bridled and saddled. It will take many generations, each making some contribution, to establish even a working control over human affairs.

It is maturity that is valuable, intellectual maturity. Wisdom is another word for it. A man reaches his best years physically somewhere around thirty, but he keeps on growing intellectually until he is much older than that. There is inspiration in the example

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of the late Justice Holmes, whose contributions to the country he loved so devoutly covered almost a century of brilliant service. His service epitomizes the social value of experience. It is experience which must be conserved. We must plan better than we have thus far if we are to employ the precious essence of life distilled through five and six decades of purposeful living.

Who is old? Who is young? Neither youth nor maturity can be measured by the clock or the calendar, of course. There are youths, too many of them, who are irreconcilable Tories. And there are more radicals among the "old folks" than we know.

Some youths will always bring their power, their driving force, their illusions, and their zeal. These are necessary. But they call for something else. The kite will not sail very high without a tail to give it balance. The rocket may be charged with a powerful powder, but it does not leave the earth without a rocket-stick to balance it and give direction.

And so youth, which usually means those without experience, will serve the world best when they are pulling in the traces with others who are mature.

J. C. D.

Bad Boy

*Young Tony is in deep disgrace again;
His proud Sicilian temper brought him here
Because a teasing classmate, passing near
His desk, had gestured at him with disdain.
The answer, loud and lusty (and profane),
Was supplemented swiftly by a pair
Of eager fists—and here, with tousled hair,
Is Tony in the office to explain.
His dark eyes, flashing not so long ago,
Are downcast; he is sorry that he swore,
He knows he never should have acted so.
He vows reform, with eyes upon the floor;
And next week he'll be back, sad-eyed and slow
In trouble—ready to repent once more.*

GERALD RAFTERY

Implications of Adult-Education Developments for Secondary Education

William H. Bristow

Charged with the responsibility of setting up "emergency" education programs for adults, uninspired school officials have offered their adult students an uninspired program copied from the traditional high-school routine of assignments, recitations, and examinations. But some other schoolmen, spiritually in tune with the vibrant notes of a new call to eat of the bread of life, have reconceived adult education and established for America a new and long-wanted folk high school. The author is director of the Curriculum Bureau in the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction.

IN THE fall of 1933 the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction issued suggestions for conducting adult-education classes and activities in connection with the Emergency Education Program, then being organized. Two years of experimentation with this program confirms the judgment of those responsible for this initial statement as to the soundness of these suggestions as applied to adult-education activities.

The purpose of this report is to indicate in some measure the implications of these suggestions for the conduct and development of secondary education.

- I. Community resources and organizations should be canvassed in organizing programs and the support of these organizations secured for the activities organized. In the formulation of plans, the local advisory committee will consult with such groups as: service clubs, community centers, social-service groups, Red Cross, libraries, local councils for the blind, Grange, musical organizations, labor organizations, American Legion, and other similar groups, as Y's, foremen's clubs, etc.

Implications

- A. The secondary schools of the community embody the highest ideals of the community for the educa-

tion of youth. They should become truly community enterprises, representative of community activities, closely linked with community life, work, recreation, culture.

- B. A general advisory committee to the superintendent or the high-school principal, changing each year, should be provided to keep close contact with the community. Such a committee should be approved by the board and wholly advisory in nature. Its recommendations should be placed before the board through the proper channels. Special advisory committees on such phases of the program as industrial education, art education, and health education would be equally helpful and stimulating.
- C. An advisory committee consisting of alumni of the school as a part of the advisory scheme seems appropriate, this committee to be composed of outstanding alumni to be called upon to meet annually and make a report of their suggestions to the proper authorities.
- D. The general school program should be closely tied up with community groups such as social

agencies, employment offices, and other agencies concerned with youth and youth problems.

- II. A careful survey of the more pressing educational needs of the community should be made. Those which promise the most in return for the efforts put forth and for which teaching personnel is available under the conditions set up for the program should be provided.

Implications

A periodic examination of the curriculum of the school is necessary not only to determine the value of present curriculum offerings, but also to know whether or not pupils are learning and whether or not they learn in the most effective manner. A continuous survey in which the pupils play a large part is a partial answer to this need.

- III. Definite plans should be established for evaluating the success of all activities organized. Classes and activities which are not yielding educational results commensurate with the efforts put forth should be discontinued.

Implications

Each community can do only so much in their schools. The principle of relative value dictates that the program of the secondary school should first include those activities which promise most to the general welfare, and to carry forward the ideals of public education. Citizenship is a first consideration and a secondary school which is not building citizens is not true to the purposes of public education.

- IV. In the conduct of classes for adults, certain activities desired will require formal assignment, recitation, quizzing, and tests. In the majority of in-

stances, however, the interests of adults and their continued participation in the activities provided will best be served by modifications of traditional classroom procedure generally and through informal individual freedom of expression.

Implications

- A. If the interest of adults and their combined participations in activities will be best served by a modification of traditional classroom procedure, then the interest of the secondary-school pupils will also best be served by a modification of the formal procedure and plans now in vogue in the usual secondary-school classroom.
- B. It is absurd that our false emphasis on standards should require that all classes offered in secondary schools be "credit" courses. Many activities should be offered primarily for appreciation. It is equally absurd that the same emphasis should be required by all pupils on the same subjects.
- C. It should not be necessary for all classes to recite every day. Many so-called recitation periods could much more profitably be used for group discussion or study, or for work in the library. Much of the formal work of the classroom has been outmoded. That these practices should continue long after they have outlived their usefulness is a reflection upon the teaching profession.
- V. The teacher of classes for adults should be prepared to develop, as largely as possible, a round-table discussion procedure. An informal atmosphere should prevail in the class at all times, permitting an open and free exchange of observations and argument. Chairs and tables about

which adult members of a class may be grouped are much to be preferred over the rigid seating of the average high-school classroom.

Implications

If it is found that adults react much more favorably to a room set up in an informal manner, then a careful study is needed of the furniture now in use in the secondary school. Equipment needs to be installed which will encourage individual study and research and make it possible to carry on discussions, encourage self-expression on the part of pupils, and develop activities which will persist long after the pupil has left the four walls of the school. It may quite well be that the secondary school of the future, following the lead of some of the progressive colleges, will provide many small conference rooms where groups are able to get together. Many classrooms will become laboratories in the true sense of the word. In addition, facilities will be provided whereby the school may take advantage of the many excellent things now available through slides, motion pictures, and the radio.

- VI. Texts, materials, and conduct of group sessions should be in keeping with the dignity of the years of those constituting the class.

Implications

During the past twenty years the secondary-school enrollment has increased practically one thousand per cent. It is only recently, however, that text materials have been developed which are adapted to the reading age of this great heterogeneous group of young people coming into the schools. There is great need at the present time for text material which is scaled to the reading ability of the average

pupil, yet which deals with experiences in keeping with the secondary-school age.

- VII. It is suggested that an advisory committee be elected by each class to help in planning and directing classwork into channels best suited, in their judgment, to the interests and needs of its members.

Implications

- A. An advisory committee consisting of pupils of the class, changing periodically, would offer many suggestions which would be helpful in the general operation of the school program.
 - B. An advisory committee of parents would bring to the school many problems not now touched upon, and ensure mutual respect and harmony between the home and school.
 - C. An advisory committee of pupils would bring an astounding amount of useful information concerning the learning of pupils and whether the school is serving the needs of youth and means in which the school program might be reorganized to serve better the needs of youth.
- VIII. Care should be taken to secure the active participation of every member of a class in the activities which are carried on, self-expression by such members being the major objective.

Implications

- A. Satisfying participation is necessary if a pupil is to get the most out of his work. A pupil unable to compete on a high level should be given an opportunity to participate on the level at which his capacity permits.
- B. Some creative activities even of a low level should be made a part

of the program of each pupil, and all should be given an opportunity to work along those lines in which he is able to secure the greatest amount of satisfaction.

- IX. One of the outcomes of adult class activities should be the development of a program in which those who are members of the class do things for themselves and carry over the activities begun in the class into community and home-life situations.

Implications

- A. A periodic survey should be made to determine the extent to which the education of the school is functioning in home and community life.
- B. An effort should be made to have the school program reënforced by those activities which youth should naturally carry out in the home and community. Likewise, the school should take advantage of these activities to reënforce its own program.
- X. Interest can be stimulated and interesting developments obtained by relating subject matter in all work to the vocational and avocational interests of the members of the class.

Implications

- A. Attention is needed upon guidance and upon the problem of job preparation and job placement. Secondary education in this country can no longer neglect its responsibility for following through the product of the school until such a time as the pupil is able to go it alone.
- B. Vocational and general education objectives are not mutually exclusive. A knowledge of industrial and commercial processes is important for all who must live in a

society largely controlled by economic and commercial forces.

- C. Such subjects as English and social studies furnish for many vocational training, in as much as ability to speak correctly, poise, appreciation of economic forces are of value in most lines of vocational endeavor.

- XI. Since the question of scholastic credit is not considered, and since adult classwork aims to approach the natural learning conditions of life situations, formal tests of achievement and final examinations should be eliminated except as requested by the group.

Implications

- A. Is it necessary that formal examinations be given in all courses? May it not be possible that some of the activities in the secondary school should be participated in primarily for their own value? Participation itself should be the end in many activities, rather than some mythical mark received by way of some none too scientific or reliable examination.
- B. Secondary education should aim at natural learning on the part of the pupil in so far as possible. Much of our testing does not test for "power," a fact recognized by the pupils. Consequently, they set about to "learn facts" to satisfy the examination. They are so busy with this that they have no time for thinking.
- XII. All those employed as teachers and leaders of activities under the State Emergency Education Relief program should recognize their responsibility for emphasizing constantly national community of spirit, and group responsibility for the welfare of its members, as exemplified by the

Federal Emergency Relief program. They should make every effort to instill confidence and courage into the morale of their respective class groups.

Implications

- A. As a part of the citizenship program implied in all public secondary education, there should be developed on the part of youth a community of spirit and a desire to be of service in the development of the democratic ideals behind our form of government which has for its purpose giving every one a chance.
- B. There should be both interschool and intraschool enterprises of a coöperative nature. These enterprises should eliminate, in so far as possible, the spirit which has pervaded much of high-school competition.
- C. It should be impressed on each individual who participates in any way in a secondary school that education is made available to afford individual growth and contributions to the general good. Each has a responsibility to "carry on" in such a way as to realize his highest potentialities.

Boy Friend

*Young brother to my Shakespeare's Romeo,
He woos his freckle-powdered lady fair
In words to lift the Bard of Avon's hair,
Gay words unknown to troubadour or beau.
Unconscious gallant! He will never know
He is the very type of all the rare
And deathless lovers; surely he is heir
Of Tristram, Abelard and Paolo.
To win her smile the boy will dare the jeers
Of jealous foes that hoot across the street,
And follow paths beset by nameless fears.
He seeks no Golden Fleece o'er perilous foam,
He lays no hard-won treasure at her feet;
He does far more—he carries her books home.*

GERALD RAFTERY

Poetry in the Social Curriculum

Leon Mones

The world tomorrow—how much will it owe to the engineers, and how much will it owe to the poets? . . . Count ten before you answer. Count ten, and read a stirring plea for poetry by an English teacher, head of his department, who has established the relationship between social reconstruction and poetry as a way of life. So distinguished an article brings credit to the author and the school he serves, Central Commercial and Manual Training High School of Newark, New Jersey.

PUBLIC schooling in America is quite definitely committed to a consistent educational philosophy, which though it became articulate slowly is today adequately formulated in two basic propositions.

First is the proposition that since public education is a social enterprise, its aims, standards, basic science, technique, and benefits ought to be social. In conflict with this conception, the older one of education as a rigid individual discipline has been abandoned or modified. Today in our public schools the activity of education is in the nature of a dynamic group concern with the verities of group living. The curriculum is no longer accepted as a body of standardized content possessing essential values and validities, but rather for its social implications and consequences. From an educational end, the curriculum has become a social means. The measure and quality of a pupil's growth, gradually ceasing to be conceived and estimated in terms of individual mensuration, are instead becoming achievable in terms of a social inventory. In brief, the conviction prevails that education at public expense is equitably entitled to be for the public welfare, and this conviction has modified the whole business of public education.

Second is the proposition that follows immediately and inevitably from the first, and concerns the nature of the school curriculum as a selective area of the social environment into which the pupil is to be educated. This proposition declares that since social verities are pragmatic and developmental and not

absolute and final, the school curriculum must be a developmental, dynamic instrumentality and not a rigid, codified body of standardized material. From this concept arises the creative demand in modern education; the pupil is not to be indoctrinated with principles or attitudes preconceived as social finalities, but is to be flexibly adjusted to a social environment that is itself a progressive, cumulative, creative pattern of human convention, expediency, and imperative.

Briefly, then, the accepted philosophy of present American public schooling asserts that public education means involving the pupil in such social experiences as will adjust him, to the measure of his capacity, for intelligent, adequate, and productive living in a dynamic and evolving society.

Every school subject is naturally coming under a searching reappraisal in the light of this newer social attitude; if it is proved to be inadequate in the social validities, no matter how valid as an individual discipline, it becomes liable to banishment from the school curriculum. And, on the contrary, subjects which a generation ago were regarded as the concern of the nursery, parlor, and political club are, by virtue of their social import, achieving a legitimate school adoption.

How has poetry as a school subject fared in this revaluation? Obviously it is in no danger of elimination from the accepted course of school studies. Though its values cannot definitely be formulated in terms of social verities, nor its educational results

measured in figures on a scale of social utility, it survives through the sheer vigor and vitality of its appeal. It is not the defense of poetry in the school curriculum that needs thought, but its function and direction in a philosophy of social pragmatism.

The distinct danger is that teachers of poetry, urged to discover and emphasize the inherent social implications and validities of the curriculum, may choose to deal with poetry as a didactic expression of ideas, instead of an integral psychological experience, valuable in its own right. To make poetry a point of departure toward an orientation of implied social ideas might become the line of least resistance for teachers unwisely over-conscious of the notion of a "socialized curriculum." Such a special and directive procedure in the teaching of poetry diverts its true, relevant, social validities and drags in earwise such validities as are directly relevant to history and the social sciences.

Certainly the discussion of social theories and the pursuit of a social orientation are legitimate school projects, but they are not immediate to a sincere involvement in the poetic experience. Didactic discussion is one thing, a reasonable, intellectual, objective type of mentation, systematized in its methods, conventionalized in its expression, engineered in its channels toward logical conclusions. The poetic experience is something distinct, an organic, spontaneous, intuitive type of response, subjective and immediate, not too tolerant of the conventional rules of reason and logic, its expression and diction born out of the very nature of the experience, and its conclusions justified by creative instead of rational satisfactions. To attempt the achievement of the first through the exercise of the second invalidates the logic of the first and the genuineness of the second. Furthermore, it may lead eventually to an unwise contempt for poetry as merely a sentimental type of expression for ideas more effectively expressed in prose.

One need not stand on the very limit of modern poetic theory and hold that in pure

poetry there must be no intellectual content, that its language must invoke no meaning except that of organic response. Poetry may involve prose meanings, if subordinated to the poetic experience. If the teacher over-emphasizes concern with these meanings, he devitalizes the poetic experience.

What then is the essential validity of poetry to justify its place in a social curriculum? No ulterior implication or goal than its own experience, in its own terms, and for the sake of its pure creative satisfaction. The poetic experience, whether in creator or reader, does not evolve from the logical responses standardized in conventional language, but from an organic readjustment to images and relations that effects new patterns of perception and vision. Mental and emotional residues in more or less subconscious and neutral states, in response to some catalytic urge, become suddenly dynamic and conscious and, in the resulting interplay, assume recreation in new patterns of relation. This is the poetic experience and, with modifications, the experience that underlies all types of creation before they become shared as public property in verbalized public language.

It is this type of organic activity that must be the chief social validity of poetry just as it must be the chief personal gratification. Unquestionably civilization demands the fixity, stability, and mutuality of experience communicable in the systematic, logical expression of prose. But a dynamic and developmental civilization needs to indulge and cultivate also the free exercise of the human creative mechanism. It must allow scope for such sensational and intellectual shift and play as will integrate new frames of human experience, not along lines of tested formula, but toward untried and unfelt configurations of human response.

It is in the midst of the poetic experience that the rigidities and fixations of the conscious personality are effectively and productively released. Both the production and the appreciation of a genuine poem are feats

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of organic creation, the response of liberated and heightened sensibilities in new patterns of emotional relation. The metaphor, the rhetorical term for the basis of all poetic creation, is but the process of discovering and forging two images in the frame of a resemblance not conceived before. In essence the metaphor is the psychological basis of all creation whether in poetry or in some more utilitarian direction.

The conclusion is that the poetic experience in terms of its true validity and with respect to its genuine function is a social desideratum, and that no irrelevant or foreign didactic by-product need be employed

to give it social weight. We must hold fast the faith that the encouragement of poetry for its own sake, its sensational responses, organic stirrings, and release of creative energy, is as important to society as the concern with applied mathematics. Not all the organic responses that can yield us pleasure and creative scope have by any means been achieved. It is through poetry that we can richly add to the individual and social possibilities of the liberated creative experience. Perhaps it is sententious to say that the indulgence of the poetic experience is more precious socially than any truths it may invoke, but this is the essence of the argument.

Vitalizing the P. T. A. Through the Homeroom

Joseph R. Strobel

This article would be relatively unimportant if the plan the author describes, carried on at the junior high school at Shaker Heights, Ohio, were not representative of other surprisingly successful experiments conducted here and there at pioneer schools. Their success should not be surprising, for it is logical—almost obvious—that the parents in any community can be enlisted in a positive program of service for the school. The “secret of success” which Mr. Strobel convincingly elaborates is avoiding a lot of nebulous discussion and substituting concrete and specific jobs for small groups of parents to do.

THERE IS A vast supply of energy hidden away in every community. A source of power that is yet to be tapped, capable of generating force and drive that if controlled and guided into proper channels can contribute much to the operation of the educational machine. Guided and controlled by professional minds it will increase in efficiency and provide many opportunities for its own use. But if left unguarded and uncontrolled it can be the means of destroying any force in its path or short-circuiting harmlessly to earth.

Realizing the many benefits of a close parent-teacher-pupil relationship, we are making an effort to capitalize on its strength in the junior high school of Shaker Heights. The development of a desirable attitude on the part of students, teachers, and parents toward any school activity that contributes directly or indirectly to the pupils that participate necessitates a closer and more workable arrangement with the home than we have ever enjoyed.

The Parent Teacher Association has been carrying on a well-organized program for a number of years in this community, encouraging and sponsoring many worth-while activities that have carried weight both in the community and in its schools. Knowing the capabilities of its officers and members, and realizing the potential contributions they could make if wisely directed, we have en-

deavored to benefit by a coöperative movement; that is, by vitalizing the P.T.A. through the homerooms. There are no opinions of those who have had successful experiences with this type of organization and who are therefore competent to evaluate it. The homeroom chairman organization as proposed here is unique to the extent that it does not follow any existing pattern. The plan as submitted has been in practice for the past two years. The suggested duties were presented to the P.T.A. through meetings and group discussions, the merits of the plan were considered, and the idea finally adopted.

The need of proper parental interest, sympathy, and encouragement in the training of our youth has been recognized by intelligent educators for some time. We cannot visualize the progress of our secondary schools without noting the part played by the layman in the formulation of its philosophy. Parents are interested in education and they have a right to know where the schools are taking their children.

The homeroom program of educational guidance can be greatly strengthened by the making of contacts with the home that will result in a better understanding and a more sympathetic appreciation toward the problems of education in general and the students possibilities in lieu of the interests and abilities of the group. These contacts may best be made through the activities of a homeroom

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chairman, as outlined in this article. Owing to the newness of the homeroom trend in educational development, a great many considerations must be carefully weighed before we can stamp the homeroom chairman organization as a finished product. Experimentation is as vital in the development of a program of this kind as in any other untried plan. Only by application can its strength and weaknesses be discovered.

THE PLAN

The 930 students of the junior high school are distributed into 36 homerooms. A few weeks previous to the opening of school in the fall a letter was sent to each homeroom teacher by the homeroom committee of the P.T.A. requesting each homeroom sponsor to recommend a mother of one of the students in that particular room to act as a homeroom chairman. The teacher was to consider the mothers, as represented in the room, according to any fitness or qualifications they might possess that would enable them to serve as chairmen. This assumed of course that the teacher was personally acquainted with the parents and their capacity to serve. The teacher recommended to this P.T.A. group the mother, seemingly qualified and desirable, for this position. The chairman of the P.T.A. group then interviewed the parent and obtained her consent to serve for the coming semester. In the case of the newer homerooms the selection was postponed until the teacher and the parent had an opportunity to meet. This was successfully accomplished through the medium of a cafeteria luncheon whereby the mothers of the various groups had lunch at school with the teacher and the members of the homerooms. The luncheon was followed by a period long enough to enable the parents and teachers to become acquainted.

After the list had been completed and a mother assigned to each homeroom, a meeting of all the homeroom chairmen was arranged and the group met at the home of one of the P.T.A. officials. As chairman of the

homeroom committee of the junior high school it was the duty of the writer to suggest ways in which the parents could contribute to the well-being of the school by working through the homerooms. The following ways were suggested to this group of 36 mothers who were very enthusiastic about the whole scheme and anxious to serve in any way.

1. The homeroom chairman should serve in the capacity of a hostess for the many desirable social parent homeroom gatherings, perhaps a tea or cafeteria luncheon as soon as the school program gets under way. This serves as a means of acquainting the parents with the teachers, other parents, and the students of each homeroom. Parents should know the student friends and associates of their boy and girl during the school day. By lunching together they meet the homeroom family, mothers, teachers, and students.

There are many desirable outcomes from such an event; mothers new to the community and school have an opportunity to become known to their neighbors, the mothers of all the group; they are usually happier and more at ease when they see and know the fine boys and girls that make up our student body. They have an opportunity to lunch in our cafeteria, enjoy the fine foods and friendly associations of a large group eating together; they obtain an insight into the problem of feeding 500 boys and girls in 50 minutes and have more sympathy and understanding with us in our problem.

2. The homeroom chairman should act as a friend and neighbor to all parents in the homeroom. We would like to have each mother visit the school during the first year her child is in the junior high school. There was a time when teachers were obligated to visit the homes of the students, but so many factors have entered into our busy day that we would like to delegate that privilege to the parents.

This visit should be a very informal attempt to get the parent to talk about her child; that is, things that we should know

about him that will help to create a better understanding. We as teachers want to know better the boy and girl behind the veneer that is exposed to us. The parent is the only one competent to do this. The teachers realize that relatively little intimate knowledge of the pupil may be gained from a record of his reactions in classes or in the incidental relationships about the school, and it is logical that any guidance that will be of benefit to the child will have to be on the basis of information about the pupil in all phases of his life and activities in and out of school. One

SHAKER HEIGHTS JUNIOR HIGH P.T.A.

Name of pupil.....
 Name of parents.....
 Address

Telephone..... Homeroom teacher.....
 Date children entered Shaker schools.....
 From School City.....
 Former P.T.A. activities.....
 Present P.T.A. activities.....
 Special interests and talents.....
 Father's business

Date dues paid

List other children in family	Grade	School
Name		
.....		
.....		

step in the direction of the establishment of this information is the collection of estimates and opinions of the parent of a particular pupil. The homeroom chairman should be the means of encouraging and even scheduling visits of the mothers in her assigned room. Many of the parents new to the school hesitate to come in because they do not know the teachers of the junior high. The homeroom chairman should devise some means whereby she will be the friend and neighbor of all the mothers, encouraging and welcoming their visits at all times.

3. A sympathetic homeroom chairman can be closer to the needs of the individual homeroom than any other person in the P.T.A. She should be the P.T.A. representative in the homeroom and the homeroom representative in the P.T.A. The chairman should be the means of informing the parent group of the worth-while activities going on in the homerooms. The chairman might even join the homeroom sponsor in planning interesting programs. It would be worth while to all to have the chairman conduct one or more program meetings. The parent in Shaker Heights has the opportunity to make contacts that will prove valuable to the homeroom. Friends and acquaintances, who are travelers, artists, educators, doctors, and individual leaders, are all potential sources for some very vital and interesting programs. We should make every attempt to capitalize on the contributions that our community and its citizens can offer, for only then are we attempting to use this dormant source of material that has lain unused so long.

4. The homeroom chairman should be the means of encouraging membership in the parent group. The chairman can accomplish more in this respect than a membership committee made up of mothers from the group at large. Just as soon as school gets under way, cards are sent to the homes of all the students by the homeroom teacher. Parents are requested to fill out these cards and return them to the homerooms. The cards are then collected by a homeroom chairman group and filed according to rooms in the office. This card serves as a means of contacting every parent, every parent being a potential member of the P.T.A. The information obtained from these cards enables the homeroom chairman to plan programs, using the talented and qualified mothers as she sees fit, either in homeroom or general parent-teacher gatherings. It enables the officers to choose committees from members who have had experience in some of the many phases of P.T.A. work.

5. The homeroom chairman should inter-

pret the school to the community. The lack of knowledge on the part of the average citizen concerning his schools is little short of appalling. A study made by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools found that the amount of knowledge a parent has of the schools seems to be directly proportional to the length of time his child has been in school. The study further indicated that there was practically no difference between fathers and mothers in their knowledge of what went on in school. This was a surprise to many who assumed that since the mothers attend the P.T.A. meetings much more frequently than the fathers they should be far better informed on school matters.

This study seems to emphasize the necessity of interpreting the schools to the community; the real purposes of the junior high school have never got across to the parents in this respect. At this time our schools depend upon the good will of all the citizens. We need friends more than ever to pick out essential facts and figures and keep them before the public until they are known. Then there are the petty issues that seem so trivial at the time, but after repeated discussions over the bridge table they become magnified and distorted to the extent that they become harmful. The homeroom chairman should foster and encourage a feeling of friendliness toward our schools by interpreting them in their true light.

6. There will be many opportunities for the homeroom chairman to aid in the organization and the administration of many special activities—Christmas baskets, picnics, school dances, lectures, musicals, assembly programs, and other school and community activities. There will be the joy in sharing trips to museums, concerts, factories, and nature hikes.

7. Many of the attitudes and experiences developed in the homeroom contribute to the well-being of the home and community as well as to the school. Boys and girls should be permitted and encouraged to prac-

tise these desirable qualities of good citizenship here and now. The homeroom chairman should take the lead in the interpretation and appreciation of these programs with the mothers of the whole group. Care of property, correct eating habits, selection of foods, courtesy, study habits, and many other topics make up some of the homeroom programs. The student must realize that constant practice in the application of these experiences is necessary but much depends on the attitude of the home as to their final retention and use.

8. The average classroom is about the most unattractive place in the community. It is generally equipped with rigidly fastened seats and desks, faced on one side with glaring window exposure and on the other by dull blackboards. Its atmosphere in most cases is that of hard work, studies, and school duties. This learning situation might be made more homelike by adding a few pictures, plants, wall hangings, or other appropriate fixtures. Here is the basis for a fine competition between homerooms, with the homeroom chairman as the leader.

9. Unfortunately all teachers are not parents. The understanding parental point of view can often be of use to the teacher as there are often times when the methods of the educator fall short and lack the necessary understanding to adjust some youngster in distress. The homeroom chairman should encourage in the group a responsibility and a feeling that the social task of educating the youth of the community belongs to both the parent and the teacher.

The homeroom is recognized as a substitute for the lost teacher-pupil equation, for it offers a plan whereby one teacher assumes the responsibility cast off in the effort to make the school fit the growing attendance. The homeroom working with an organization efficiently constituted can do much to realize the belief common to most educators that the parent-teacher homeroom organizations should be the cause rather than the result of an efficient school system.

New Marks for Old

Herman O. Hovde

Mr. Hovde, instructor in physics and chemistry at the Loveland High School, Loveland, Colorado, enters the lists this month in the bitter war that is raging on all fronts for the revision of our outmoded system of marks. As a preliminary to a symposium on the question, the editor invites you to send to THE CLEARING HOUSE a copy of your revised report card or grade record and a brief explanation of the principles it represents.

EDUCATION supposedly has improved since the days of the one-room school. Undoubtedly schools have grown in size; tremendous increases have been made in school buildings and the curriculum has increased in scope and length. Yet with all these changes the school children of the land periodically bring home a printed card with the legend: arithmetic 78, conduct 90, spelling 56; or possibly: geography A, history A—, physical education D.

Parents duly sign such cards, or other means are brought to bear by the youngster to secure a facsimile of parental signature which will pass examination. Perhaps the parent will boast to neighbors, "Charley had 95 in reading" or else reprimand George for receiving 65 in English. Yet what has the parent found out about the progress his child is making? What is the meaning of the mark that is to be found on the "report" card?

The idea that a per cent mark or a letter can classify properly, and indicate accurately what progress has been made by a child having all the variations and possibilities of the human race, cannot be too strongly condemned.

What does "A" mean? Some answer that "A" means that the child is in the upper 3 per cent of his class; that he has done better work than 97 per cent of his classmates. Others reply that he is 2 sigma above the median of his class in achievement. Whatever the answer be, it does not include measurement of the child in terms of his accomplishment, rated on the basis of his capacity to learn, his health, his social re-

actions, and the many other phases of living that children partake in at school.

What does 95 mean? Theoretically, perhaps, 95 per cent. But if 95 per cent, of what is it the measurement? Surely not 95 per cent of the material in the subject rated; and, almost equally certain, not 95 per cent of what has been taught. If not these obvious meanings what possible connotation does it have?

The purpose of this article is to explain a system of marking used at the Colorado State Teachers College High School under the direction of Dr. William L. Wrinkle, and by Paonia High School, Paonia, Colorado, under the direction of Horace J. Wubben, superintendent, and A. V. Wilson, principal of the high school.

The new marking plan was adopted for Paonia High School in the fall of 1933, following experimental trials of the plan in several classes. Teachers College Secondary School has used the plan for six quarters to date. In both schools there have been many changes since the plan was first put into operation. Both schools are using almost the same system though both planned it independently. The new plan uses three marks S—satisfactory, U—unsatisfactory, and H—honors. The first plan at Paonia High School used only two marks, the honors being omitted. Though only three marks are used in the new system of marking, the fundamental difference between it and older methods of marking is not in the number of marks given, nor in the intrinsic meaning of the marks used, but it is in the purpose for which marks

are assigned, and in the objectives of education which the new method of marking indicates the amount of attainment of each individual in. No new marking system is needed for those who only plan to write old marks in new terms, or for those who feel no need for adjustment of education to modern needs. Education probably did not make any fundamental advance when letters were substituted for marks in numbers as long as report cards still retained the note: A from 95 to 100, or other equivalent.

The report card adopted at Teachers College High School and at Paonia has nine divisions: achievement of objectives, achievement in terms of the student's own ability, ability in learning procedure, work habits, ability in written expression, ability in oral expression, reaction in social relationships, responsibility, and care in personal appearance.

To assist in the interpretation of marks, each of the nine divisions is subdivided into specific abilities or objectives. The divisions are marked by underlining one of three letters placed at the right of the division heading; viz., U, S, or H. Specific abilities or objectives which are found within each division are marked plus if the student has superior achievement or by a minus if the student is below desirable achievement.

A blank space on the lower part of the form provides for explanation, comments, or suggestions for guidance of the parent and student. The reports are mailed to parents of the students.

The new report card evaluates the student in phases of activity that the ordinary school report neglects. A student taking English and science might receive B or 85 per cent in English and A— or 91 per cent in science on the old report card. Since authorities are quite well agreed that the present report card mark should signify subject-matter achievement only, a student with the above rank in science might use English in the science class in a manner considered inferior to a child much younger and suffer no pen-

alty and perhaps also without himself recognizing such deficiency.

The new report card on the other hand provides for evaluation of oral expression and such a student might get honors in science as far as achievement was concerned, yet be rated unsatisfactory in oral expression. His weakness in English would then be called to his attention and improvement could be guided in that direction.

The new report card provides for marking a student on his method of work, and also allows students who have mediocre ability, but are using such ability to the maximum, to achieve honors. Brilliant students, who have been able under the present reporting system, to have high marks without effort, will be forced under the new system to work up to their possibilities in order to receive honor grades.

The new report card also minimizes the high test scores, tends to provide readable reports of progress that will have a meaning to parents, shows the student his weak points so he can concentrate upon them and secure improvement, and tends to make each student an individual dependent upon himself for progress and improvement.

The report blank is better than a letter because it provides definite matters to rate the individual, some of which might easily be omitted in a letter. It has been carefully worked out to report all qualities that are significant in the development of the child.

Social qualities are improved under the new system of marking because three of the nine divisions deal with social qualities. One common criticism of old marking methods was that students who failed in school often succeeded in life much better than those who had high marks in school. Marking students on social qualities should go a long way toward changing that criticism, because social qualities are of great importance in business success. Recognition of such qualities by the school will aid in developing the students who lack such qualities though having great ability in abstraction.

REPORT TO PARENTS AND GUIDANCE COUNSELOR

Colorado State Teachers College High School
Greeley, Colorado

Student _____ Summer Quarter
Course or Activity _____ 1914

It is the purpose of this report to present an evaluation of student achievement and progress. The first two items below are specific with respect to the particular objectives of the course or activity reported. The remaining seven items are concerned with more general abilities and qualities. To aid in their interpretation, these evaluations have been analyzed into specific activities or abilities. These specific items have been marked "+" or "-" to indicate special strengths or weaknesses of the student. An explanation of such evaluation, particularly of those marked "-", will be found in the space below or on the reverse side of this sheet. U, S, and H indicate evaluations of UNSATISFACTORY, SATISFACTORY, and HONORS.

ACHIEVEMENT OF OBJECTIVES—Each course or activity included in the program of the school is concerned with the achievement by the student of certain objectives. This evaluation refers to the degree to which the student has achieved the particular objectives of this course. U S H

ACHIEVEMENT IN TERMS OF STUDENT ABILITY—The achievement of the student in a given course or activity is modified by many factors such as ability, background, industry, etc. This evaluation refers to the extent to which the student has achieved the objectives of this course or activity in relation to what he is capable of doing. U S H

ABILITY IN LEARNING PROCEDURES—() Self-direction () Reading rate () Reading comprehension () Use of materials and study aids () Recognition of problems () Devising plans for solution of problems () Recall of previous learning () Collecting and organizing ideas () Arriving at correct solutions to problems () Recognition of learning difficulties. U S H

WORK HABITS—() Has broad interests () Is active without frequent stimulation () Approaches problems with a desire to learn () Carries plans through to completion () Applies what is learned () Endeavors to do his best outside as well as inside the classroom () Cooperates with teachers and supervisors in making efforts for improvement () Engages in worth-while out-of-school recreational activities () Shows originality and initiative () Engages in creative activity () Has self-confidence () Is thorough () Is orderly and careful in the use of materials and equipment. U S H

ABILITY IN WRITTEN EXPRESSION—Grammatical construction of () sentences () paragraphs () compositions () Punctuation () Spelling () Fluency and accuracy in word usage () Vocabulary () Neatness and legibility () Rate () Attitudes with respect to standards in writing. U S H

ABILITY IN ORAL EXPRESSION—() Grammatical construction () Fluency and freedom in speech () Pronunciation () Enunciation () Voice () Poise () Speaking vocabulary () Attitudes with respect to speech standards. U S H

REACTION IN SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS—() Enjoys companions () Demonstrates self-confidence in social relationships () Cooperates in and contributes to group activity () Defends basic rights but recognizes the rights and is tolerant of the points of view of others () Is positive influence in working for the best interests of the school and student body () Accept responsibilities and performs duties faithfully () Participates democratically in group control () Demonstrates leadership () Uses good manners in contacts with others. U S H

RESPONSIBILITY—() Lives up to agreements () Meets obligations and responsibilities promptly () Maintains school standards and ideals in the classroom, () on the campus, and () off the campus () Is regular in attendance and absents himself only when necessary () Observes school standards and regulations when not under observation of teachers. Unapproved absenceperiods Unapproved tardinessperiods. U S H

CARE IN PERSONAL APPEARANCE—() Keeps clothing neat and clean () Maintains good posture in sitting, walking, and standing () Keeps clean and attractive physically. U S H

Explanation of Evaluations, Comments on Improvement, Suggestions for Guidance:

Supervising Teacher

Teacher

Two copies of this report for each student, an original and a duplicate, are to be filed at the Office of the Guidance Counselor at the close of each quarter. Original copies will be assembled and mailed to the parents of the student.

Parents are enthusiastic in support of the new marking system where it has been tried. Aside from one parent, who objected that the new report took too long to read, no objections have been received by the authorities at the above mentioned schools.

Another advantage of the new marking system is that it does not attempt to rate children mathematically. It recognizes that with our present knowledge of human qualities we are not able to rate human beings as we can machine parts, by exact measurement. It is enough that we determine direction of progress and as well as possible the rate at which such progress is going.

The new marking plan also tends toward fairness more than the system in common use at present because many qualities are marked, and a student whose conduct merits a low

rating can be marked so in social qualities while receiving an achievement rating according to his work. Too often marks have been used to penalize misbehaving students, or on the other hand poor social reactions have been neglected by teachers who believe in making the mark a record of subject-matter achievement only. Under the new plan a student is rated on all qualities, and can get a proper picture of himself.

Using the new plan of giving S, U, or H marks with the understanding that such marks are to be based on the ability and effort of the student, each child will secure a proper rating of himself and thus will be able to develop himself, according to the best ideas of modern education, into a healthy, well-balanced, social being who can take full part in the complex society of today.

Guidance in a Junior High School

William A. King

The principal of the James Monroe Junior High School at Seattle, Washington, has set down some of the guidance techniques that have been tested in his school. It is no guidance nostrum he offers, no streamlined chromium guidance machine—"we have more confidence in the missionary zeal of the teacher than in the machinery of guidance."

IT WAS MY intention to introduce this article with a clear-cut definition of guidance. Thus far I have not formulated a satisfactory definition nor have I read one that seems sufficiently clear. Let me merely state that I look with favor on the limiting concept of guidance as set forth by Dr. Koos and Dr. Kefauver in their comprehensive book¹ on the subject. Their interpretation of (1) the "distributive" and (2) the "adjustive" phases of guidance should help to hold the guidance idea within sensible bounds thus preventing another erstwhile respectable educational term from sprawling clumsily over the whole educational firmament.

To give point to this brief discussion, I shall write concerning some features of the guidance program of the James Monroe Junior High School of Seattle, Washington, which may possibly be helpful or suggestive to others who, like us, are experiencing the early stages of guidance development. This school has just celebrated its fourth anniversary. It now has twelve hundred fifty pupils and forty teachers. If in this article the "machinery" of guidance appears to crowd actual service to boys and girls from the center of the stage, then we have strayed from the policy announced when this institution was organized.

Our guidance objectives may be stated thus:

1. Helping the pupil to use the school—Interpretation to him of its opportunities and offerings (curriculum revisions implied)

2. Helping the pupil to discover his aptitudes and to develop his interests (pointing him toward successful living in a democratic society implied)
3. Pupil adjustment

HOW ARE WE HELPING THE PUPIL TO USE THE SCHOOL?

Following are certain guidance measures which we consider significant:

1. Visits to all contributory elementary schools by the counselor and the principal to test pupils and to provide information that will help them to make an easy and successful entrance into the junior high school
2. Provision of orientation clubs for the purpose of interpreting the junior high school to all pupils during their first semester
3. Informational bulletins on the use of the library (One of these is published in "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *The School Review*, October 1933.)
4. Interpretation of elective subjects
5. Establishment of boys' and girls' clubs with numerous functional committees under direction of boys' and girls' club advisers
6. Homeroom organization

In this article there is space for more specific reference to only one of the above mentioned items. This concerns a phase of the homeroom program. One of our earliest guidance measures was to assemble in some definite way what seemed to us the more

¹L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver, *Guidance in Secondary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932).

significant activities or appeals that had become integral elements in the life of the school. At the close of any given semester, the homeroom teacher can conveniently chart a curve to show the percentage of pupils in her group who have participated in each activity. Furthermore, a master graph can be compiled easily for the purpose of showing comparative results throughout the building.

HOW ARE WE HELPING THE PUPIL TO DISCOVER HIS APTITUDES AND INTERESTS

The following activities are typical:

1. School clubs. This is our present offering:

Art guild	Know your city
Astronomy	Latin
Boys' cooking	Leadership
Checkers	Mechanical
Dramatics	designers
Electricity	Music
Fifty-fifty	Needlecraft
First aid (boys)	Pigeon
First aid (girls)	Ping pong
Garden	Reading for fun
Girls' woodworking	Scrapbook
Good times	Sketch
Hiking	Stamp
Inky fingers	Tumbling, boys'
Knitting	Orientation

2. Community projects. One of our major studies now in progress is an enterprise in artistic expression whereby all the students who are especially capable and resourceful are permitted to participate in the production of a mural painting portraying phases or episodes associated with the westward movement in American history.

Preliminary sketches, done in charcoal, were submitted by more than fifty pupils. At this writing, five boys are at work in dead earnest. They have been granted the use of an empty classroom adjacent to the suite of art rooms—a veritable studio—to which

whole classes of the school and other interested visitors are coming to view the boys' achievements to date. On twenty-foot lengths of paper appear covered wagons, stalwart pioneers shading their eyes toward the West, Indians across the trail, and other adolescent portrayals of this epochal period. The medium for the final representations will be paint. It seems that the influence of the art teachers who are directing this creative project is the essence of genuine guidance.

3. Exploratory experiences. We have the usual round—cooking, sewing, personal regimens, printing, woodworking, metal, electricity, and mechanical drawing. Are we not justified, however, in asserting that all junior-high-school courses should be regarded as exploratory? During the present semester, every class in mathematics and English is carrying on a "Measurement of Progress" study especially conditioned to promote exploratory experiences. Several classes in mathematics are reaching well beyond the stipulations of the appointed curriculum in order to explore such fields as these: (a) mathematical information, (b) geometric designs in nature, (c) recreational mathematics.

One course in "Occupations," offered to 9A pupils, is rich in exploratory experiences. Guidance is the chief motive. It assists the student to discover his own capabilities and to think independently in regard to the choice of vocation he may wish to make as well as the method and means of preparation. It prepares him for a better understanding of occupational problems. It equips him with vocational information and develops an appreciation of the dignity and worth of all occupations which contribute to human welfare. Through visits to industries he has observed the worker. He has a more democratic view of all workers and a clearer understanding of the problems confronting the worker and the adjustments that may be necessary to meet changing world plans.

HOW ARE WE HELPING PUPILS TO
ADJUST THEMSELVES

1. Special counseling. In order to have a definite basis for instituting this service, it is our policy to follow up individual cases for which any teacher requests assistance. For example, if teacher "A" advises that Johnnie Doe is not progressing satisfactorily in English, the counselor promptly checks

while, I believe, to note that thus far we have excluded from such studies all pupils who are of low intelligence in order to attend to those whose progress appears to be impeded by emotional or social causes. Preliminary to these studies are the conferences attended by the counselor, principal, and the head of the child-guidance department. Into this service, of course, in studied relation-

JAMES MONROE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
REPORT OF PUPIL'S PROGRESS

To.....:

Date.....

Frequently, information concerning the quality of schoolwork is needed in advance of the issue of report cards. Please give your estimate of the work of class....., in the following subjects. Use the same grading system as is used on report cards. Please return filled record to office today.

Subject	Grade	Cit.	Eff.	General Attitude

Comments

.....

.....

.....

his standing in all other subjects. Copies of the above blank are found helpful in assembling this vital information.

2. Group conferences with teachers. These conferences are held for the purpose of estimating the progress of every pupil in any class selected for special attention. Such conferences, participated in by all teachers who meet the given class, the counselor, and the principal, always bring to light one or more individuals who are in need of special guidance services. The counselor and teachers leave these conferences with much additional insight and information vital to the future direction of these pupils.

3. Case studies. A number of these are in progress at the present time. It is worth

ship, go such considerations as home conditions, school history, teacher-counselor-parent conferences, and recommendations of the child-guidance department, including thorough physical and psychiatric examinations if necessary. Not the least of our expectations is that through these intensive studies we shall gain many vital suggestions and insights that can be applied more universally in our guidance services to all our pupils.

One thought that we strive to keep to the fore is that the tone and spirit of a school cannot rise appreciably higher than the morale of its classrooms. We have more confidence in the missionary zeal of the teacher than in the machinery of guidance.

What Is "Supervised Correspondence Study"?

Wray H. Congdon

During his service at the University of Michigan, Professor Congdon, now at Lehigh University, saw the significant possibilities of correspondence study. Not only rural high schools but urban ones as well may use such a plan as the one outlined here for adapting the familiar "mail-order" courses.

FOR MANY years the proprietary correspondence schools, and more recently higher educational institutions through their extension divisions, have urged home study by correspondence because individuals could thereby pursue *independently* their further studies. It was strongly argued that serious-minded individuals of maturity could often progress as efficiently and satisfactorily by this method, if they followed faithfully the instructions sent out with the correspondence lessons, as they could by attending formal institutions of learning. The argument ran that the lesson sheets, study guides, and textual materials were so expertly organized that "not only could any one understand them, but no one could misunderstand them." In fact, a superior educational service has been rendered by some correspondence agencies in this field. Their organization of materials for learning and of guide sheets in many ways excels similar organizations of material in the formal school situations. Is it strange, then, that one is a bit perturbed to see the phrase "*supervised* correspondence study"?

The origin of this phrase may be traced to the introduction of correspondence courses into the regular high-school offerings. Ever since Superintendent Sid Mitchell inaugurated what is frequently referred to as the "Benton Harbor Plan of Supervised Correspondence Study in High School" in his school system on the east shore of Lake Michigan in 1923, the use of this term has spread with rapidity. Interpretation of the term has fluctuated considerably during the

ensuing dozen years that the plan has been in operation. Of late this interpretation is becoming somewhat stabilized due to two conferences of major significance. The first was a panel discussion on the topic "Supervised Correspondence Study in the High School" held in Cleveland, February 1934, during the meetings of the Department of Superintendence. Representatives from university extension departments, State departments of education, correspondence schools, together with school superintendents and professors from teacher-training institutions participated in the half-day discussion, led by Superintendent Mitchell. The conclusions and agreements growing out of this discussion have since been amplified and refined by a three-day conference at Teachers College, Columbia University, under the leadership of Dr. Frank W. Cyr, upon the topic "Supervised Correspondence Study in Secondary Schools." Out of these serious attempts to define more clearly the goals, the methods, the dangers, and the possibilities of the movement as well as the terms employed clarified understandings have come.

Stated very briefly, the plan is to provide through the public schools an opportunity for students to enrich their courses of study by electing to take courses by correspondence which the local school would not be able to offer its pupils. The school will provide study time, place, and supervision for such students, will permit work done in this manner to count toward graduation, and will otherwise facilitate and encourage the procedure within certain prescribed limits of wise ad-

ministration. To quote a definition presented and generally accepted at the panel discussion in Cleveland, "Supervised correspondence study represents that procedure in which the local high school secures the lessons, provides regular periods in the school day for study, supervises the work, and returns the lessons to the correspondence center. Thus, the relationship between the correspondence study center and the local school is a coöperative one. Supervised correspondence study differs from locally administered individual instruction in only one way; the units are prepared and pupil mastery tested by the correspondence center rather than by the local school."¹ It is not the purpose of this article to describe the procedure in detail or to discuss its merits and demerits directly. The case for and the status of the movement are thoroughly discussed in three easily available sources for those who wish to know more about it.² It is the purpose here to consider more specifically the supervisory aspects of the procedure.

A schoolman's idea of what is involved in supervised practices of the more desirable sort might lead him astray in understanding the practice of supervising correspondence courses offered in high schools. There are no minute study directions and ready assistance for the pupil who becomes "stuck" on a problem in this plan. The "supervisor" of a group of high-school students pursuing correspondence study will have in his charge at any one time a number of pupils, no two of

whom are necessarily studying the same thing (though actually many may be) and all of whom are very possibly interested in subjects concerning which the supervisor may know little or nothing at all. The medley of studies may cover such a range of topics as advertising, structural engineering, architectural design, commercial art, real-estate law, aviation, auto operation and repair, wireless, pattern making, civics, civil service, which subjects comprised one half of those actually pursued through correspondence courses in the Benton Harbor High School in 1932. It is obvious that when students have more than two hundred possible courses from which to select, it would be impossible to find such a paragon of intellectual attainment as would be needed to give expert informational help to all the students gathered to work on their various correspondence courses. Furthermore, guide sheets and directions come with each correspondence lesson so that there is little left for the supervisor to do in the way of directing actual lesson procedures. To the traditional teacher, only two alternatives seem possible under such a situation. Either the supervisor is faced with a situation so varied and heterogeneous in its demands that no one can possibly handle it satisfactorily, or else the supervisor is merely a policeman to see that each pupil attends to business and does not waste time or disturb other pupils. Neither assumption is correct.

This erroneous point of view is due primarily to a misconception—perhaps more accurately, a lack of conception—of the nature of the study materials sent out by extension divisions and correspondence schools. Because these are not traditional they are not understood, and many of the claims for them are doubted. It might be well to observe at this point that one should either have very well-substantiated bases upon which to reject the whole philosophy and practice of the correspondence-school idea and have nothing to do with it, or else if using it he should accept the plan at its face value. Because most of us are really quite ignorant of the

¹ Unpublished verbatim stenographic report of the Panel-Jury Discussion on "Supervised Correspondence Study in High Schools," held during the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at Cleveland, Ohio, Wednesday, February 28, 1934.

² J. S. Noffsinger, editor, "The Benton Harbor Plan," a symposium by educational leaders on how to enrich the high-school and junior-college programs through correspondence courses. Washington: The National Home Study Council, 1932 (no price indicated).

Walter H. Gaumnitz, "High-School Instruction by Mail—A Potential Economy." Washington: Government Printing Office, Office of Education Bulletin No. 13, 1933, ten cents.

Report of Conference on "Supervised Correspondence Study." Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1934 (annotated bibliography), twenty-five cents.

actual organization and administration of this educational device, open-minded and intelligent inquiry is the best attitude to take. But if we do accept the assistance which these courses may give in enriching the high-school curricula, it is necessary to accept also the plan devised for administering these study units. The lessons are developed with the intention that students without any manner of outside assistance, but entirely dependent upon their own resources, can follow the directions given, use the materials supplied, and successfully reach the educational goals they have set for themselves. Actually, large numbers of maturer students are doing this successfully every year.

When this type of course is provided for high-school pupils, it should not be assumed that they need to be provided with the same type of supervisory set-up and practices as in the case of their ordinary study periods. With correspondence courses, the situation approximates that of the individualized contract forms of teaching method and unit organization, with guide sheets for study direction. One important difference is that the correspondence materials have in most instances been more expertly and efficiently organized. This is because the correspondence schools have had to depend solely on the printed page for directing students to a successful issue in their studies. Consequently, when high-school students use these materials, the very minimum of further direction or explanation of content materials is needed. When assistance is needed by the pupil, he is more likely to want help in interpreting a question or defining his own learning difficulty than to have need for subject-matter information or study directions. Such help any capable teacher should be able to give whether an expert in the subject materials or not.

If the supervisor, then, is not to be interested primarily in directing study procedures or in helping students over subject-matter difficulties, the schoolman might well ask what purpose the supervisor is to serve.

There is still need for a director of the correspondence-study group. The first need is that such students shall have wise guidance in the selection of courses. It is quite conceivable that in some schools a counselor might be the best sort of person to supervise the one or two hours set apart for the correspondence-study group to do their work. One of the most serious causes of mortality among correspondence students who fail to finish their work appears to be an unwise choice of courses. Flagging interest is frequently due to having chosen work beyond the abilities of the learner to carry through, or not in full harmony with his real needs or interests. The first and most important step, then, where the school can be of vital assistance to the prospective correspondence student in its midst, is to give wise guidance in the selection of such enriching courses as will be fully consonant with the learners' needs, abilities, and interests. Furthermore, this guidance should be continuing and not infrequently reconsidered in the light of new evidence, as to pupil abilities and needs.

The correspondence-course student is handicapped as compared to the student taking work with a subject-matter teacher in the lack of locally available supplementary materials and experiences which may greatly enrich the learning and clarify the understanding. Ordinarily, these students' learning experiences are confined to the printed materials alone. Without being expert in the particular field of study, a supervisor who is alert and interested could very easily make available to pupils supplementary visual aids, excursion opportunities, field trips, and other types of valuable experiences which would considerably enhance the whole learning procedure. Without a trained person as supervisor, such opportunities would be unavailable or would be so inappropriately organized and incidentally experienced as to be of only slight value.

Another type of learning experience which the correspondence student misses is encompassed by the concept—"socialized learning."

The correspondence student in high school does not lose these values entirely, as it is to be presumed he experiences them in the other exercises of his school life. So far as they might contribute to better learning in his correspondence studies, however, he is missing desirable values. An able supervisor might well make an important contribution at this point by organizing discussion groups, opportunities for group presentations and self-expression, and such other socialized procedures as appear feasible and important.

One arresting argument presented for the introduction of correspondence-school work into our high schools is found in Noffsinger's study^a indicating that four times as many people going out of the high schools will later on take correspondence work as will ever enter institutions of higher education. There is then just as legitimate and a much more pressing need to "prepare" them for making the best use of this type of furthering education as to "prepare" them for college. The very best type of preparation for this later life experience would seem to be training in the careful selection and successful pursuit of this sort of work while they are still in the school where expert direction can be given them. Right here the supervisor can be of immeasurable help. Although specific directions for study and procedure come with each correspondence lesson, so that much of the type of supervised study directions and help common in our schools is not needed, there is still an opportunity and a need for the supervisor to diagnose reading and study habit weaknesses and apply remedial measures. While this is an ideal in all supervised educational situations, it is an ideal seldom attained even in many of our best schools, simply because too many other demands upon the supervisor's time and energies keep him from ever getting around to do this. But in the directed study periods for correspondence students, an enviable opportunity

to perform just this service is presented. With preparation of the student in independent habits of study and self-direction as a primary goal, the supervisor should take full advantage of this opportunity. In proportion as the supervising teacher does this task well, to that same extent will these students be more apt to succeed in their immediate learning goals as well as become better prepared to carry on continuing educational experiences after they leave their formal school situations.

Another service which the supervisor might well give to this special group of pupils is stimulation and inspiration. The encouragement often necessary to get a pupil by a difficult angle of a subject or over a plateau in the learning curve is more readily at hand in the courses taken under teacher direction than in courses pursued independently. This encouragement may not infrequently be the one factor deciding between the pupil's success or failure in carrying through the particular subject. If in place of the classroom teacher's understanding and meeting of the situation there is available here the supervisor's readiness to recognize such difficulties and to stimulate the needed extra effort at the psychological moment, what might otherwise be failures may be salvaged and success ensured. Not only is this important in the accomplishment of the immediate goals being pursued, but it may prove even more important as a training experience habituating the student in the mastery of his problems and in persistence in the face of discouragements. This is an important element in the training for independent study habits and self-direction.

Another less direct service which is seldom appreciated should be given more consideration. The supervisor, because of his background of training and experience as an educator and because of his proximity to the actual learning situations of the correspondence student, may become an invaluable ally for the authors of correspondence courses. If he will take pains to observe,

^a J. S. Noffsinger, *Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926), p. 16.

make note of, and report difficulties and obscurities of materials and of organization of these lessons which are most frequently encountered, substantial improvement in the lesson sheets and guides themselves could be effected. Since most correspondence materials are originally intended for adult minds, there is much adaptation of them needed to meet the needs of the adolescent mind, if they are to be used in high schools. Here is a source of assistance which those producing correspondence courses should cultivate more assiduously.

Other needs for a supervisor are of a mere administrative nature, and while necessary are not of such fundamental importance. There may be some need for "policing," although where students are pursuing subjects of their own choice motivation is high and interest in the work being done generally eliminates disciplinary problems. There are routine matters of record, checking, reporting, seeing that lessons are received and returned on time, and the like which demand the attention of a responsible person such as the supervisor would be. While these duties are important they would not alone justify the time of a capable teacher being assigned to this work, but, considered in combination with the other services a supervisor could render, they indicate the need of a well-trained and experienced person being placed in charge of this new service feature of the modern high school.

In summary, the need for a supervisor of students taking work by correspondence while still in high school, although in some respects quite different from the traditional requirements upon a study-hall supervisor, is still important and is replete with potential services. In addition to handling the routine matters involved, this supervisor will make important contributions in continuing guidance and recounseling the pupils seeking thus to enrich their preparation and learning experiences. He will find means of supplementing correspondence instruction with visual aids and excursion opportunities, and with socialized learning activities. He will also make important contributions in diagnosing study habit weakness, applying remedial procedures, and thus training the students in independence of study habits and self-direction. Also, by being on hand at the crucial moments to encourage and stimulate when the way appears too hard, the supervisor can salvage potential failures and aid in habituating the student working on his own initiative in the art of mastering his problems in spite of discouragements and difficulties. He can make important suggestions for revamping lesson and guide sheets to meet the needs of adolescent minds. These training opportunities justify a well-trained experienced supervisor being assigned to help students taking correspondence work in high school and intimate the importance of the responsibilities involved.

Money Management and the Schools

Kenneth B. Haas

Students are consumers before they are producers. It is likely that students will respond heartily to the kind of consumer education which Mr. Haas argues for in the following article. If his personal bias is more vigorous than the one you subscribe to, you will still find that you agree with him on many points fundamental to the course he outlines here. Mr. Haas writes from the Bowling Green College of Commerce of Bowling Green, Kentucky.

THE THRUST OF ECONOMIC FORCES

NO ONE disputes the fact that economic forces direct and control our ways of life. Yet there are only a few secondary schools in the nation offering economic education for personal use to our future adults. It would be difficult to find more than ten secondary schools in the whole nation offering guidance in making wise choices of food, clothing, shelter, and the many other necessities of life. Since educational authorities urge that we shape our education in terms of the life needs of those being educated, are we not justified in giving training in the management of money? Even in the present depression we have an income approximating fifty billion dollars annually. At least ten billion of this huge sum is "saved," at least the whimsical reason usually offered for the disposal of surplus funds is that they are "saved." Actually they are *spent* for such things as insurance, radios, autos, homes, emergencies, and what have been grimly called "securities."

EDUCATION BY BUSINESS FIRMS

Interested business firms usually attempt to educate in consumerism for their own advantage. Education by business firms and financial institutions has most of the advantages and disadvantages connected with our profit-seeking economic order. In order that the business may gain, educational effort is usually directed toward selling the particular thing the business has to sell. The principal aim is to add to profits, not to enthrone "the

truth, and nothing but the truth." Zeal is liable to be substituted for accurate knowledge and the scientific spirit. Results are measured for the educator by the profit and loss account; for the educated by the satisfaction he is made to feel over his investment.

Banks, trust companies, and insurance companies produce much printed material in the form of booklets, leaflets, form letters, and circulars. Such material is usually distributed gratis and has in its favor not only the advantages of wide circulation but also the fact that, typically, conservative information is offered. Without a doubt this agency of education does much good. Its weakness lies chiefly in aim and in method. Its aim seems to be, in the main, to reach those already reached; for example, those who come into the bank are given material on banking; insurance-policy holders received information on the benefits of having insurance; bondholders receive circulars describing new offerings. In method the printed material of financial institutions is usually formal and technical, in some cases inexcusably technical. Too often the personal representatives of these institutions are likewise guilty of employing language that is unnecessarily difficult. Those with whom they deal easily become confused and bewildered in the presence of a maze of strange terms, but usually hesitate to admit that they do not understand what is being said. Accordingly many opportunities for financial enlightenment are lost.

THE PRESS AND THE CONSUMER

The press is possibly our most important source for financial education at present. In a country characterized by almost universal literacy and by cheap printing, much education is gained through the medium of the press. Economic education is not an exception. Books, newspapers, magazines, and sundry less formal vehicles carry a continuous procession of ideas to the public. Written in every conceivable style, reinforced by ingenious illustrative devices, and broadcast by such methods as libraries, newsstands, and subscription lists, these printed sources are reaching the masses. Some are devoted primarily to consumer topics, as the *Consumers' Research Bulletins*, and to financial topics, as the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, and books on banking or investments. Others give systematic but secondary attention to economics and finance, as daily newspapers, *The Literary Digest*, and books on economics. Others give no attention or at best only incidental attention to financial matters, as most fiction, and magazines devoted to religious interests. On the whole it may be said that the consumer material which appears in books, magazines, and newspapers is well written, reasonably sound in principle, and effective in carrying its message. But they rarely say anything to offend the advertisers, and this constitutes a serious defect since consumer welfare is usually contra to distributor's welfare.

In certain types of financial education, such as warning individuals against "blue-sky" purchases, the daily press, with its stories of fraud perpetrated on members of the community, is a most potent agency. On the other hand the *financial* pages of the daily papers are a rather weak educational force for several reasons. The terminology is for the most part technical, hence is understood only by those who have already a fairly wide knowledge of finance. The material does not have the human interest that the other pages typically contain, hence the financial pages are read by fewer persons

than read the general news. The relatively large amount of space given to the stock market also weakens the potential educational value of the financial pages.

SCHOOLS AND THE CONSUMER

Instruction in the field of buymanship has barely begun. It is only rarely that one can find such instruction and then it is usually in home-economics classes which are being taught by a few rare teachers who dare to venture beyond the dull confines of the standardized curriculum.

The majority of schools do worse than nothing. They permit and encourage petty exploitation and miseducation in consumer habits. For example during the fall of 1931, the town of Kearny, New Jersey, staged a campaign to eat more bananas, which was fostered by a great fruit company, operating under the guise of the local medical association. In North Arlington, New Jersey, pupils were (in 1934) told to use a certain brand of toothpaste and brushes. This is domination by business propaganda and pressure. Is it good education for the best life?

There is another phase of consumer economics which instructors might find it worthwhile to understand and to pass on to their pupils. That is the meaning of utility wage and its relation to consumer welfare.

Absolute or money income long ago ceased to be a meaningful term as an index of living standards. The attempt has been made to make the term mean something through relating it to shifting prices by index numbers and calling it real income. But this term and the method of arriving at living standards is not expressive enough, because it is possible to lower both quality and quantity of goods and services while real wages are rising. Therefore, we need a new concept of mass living standards in terms of income which has been called a utility wage. This would be a wage in which the magnitude of income equals not only shifting prices but also shifting quantity, quality, and character of consumer goods.

This concept of the amount of goods and services money will buy should interest teachers far more than other wage groups. First, teachers are taught to expect a higher standard of living than other wage groups enjoy, but they must accomplish a higher standard on a lower wage scale. Second, teachers as a group fall in the "subsistence or poverty" group of income earners. Thus, while earning the least, they are expected to have a philosophy toward life substantially like that of higher income groups. This is absurd.

For example, the following table shows the economic status, in 1934, of six income groups:

ECONOMIC GROUPS BY INCOMES, 1934¹

Wealthy	\$25,000 and over
Well to do.....	10,000 to 25,000
Comfortable	5,000 to 10,000
Moderate circumstances	3,000 to 5,000
Minimum comfort	1,500 to 3,000
Subsistence and poverty.....	Under 1,500

Principals, superintendents, and members of boards of education might profitably analyze this table. Teachers are doubtless in the economic group described as "subsistence and poverty," along with the majority of adult wage earners. We may wonder if a subsistence poverty scale of wages for teachers and other citizens is not promoting the spread of the doctrines so feared by Mr. Hearst.

With the groundwork for inflation already laid there is every evidence that we shall soon see a rise in the price of consumer's goods and a resultant fall in consumer's buying income. Since teachers' salaries are fixed by contract for one year we may confidently expect a further lowering of real wages without hope for an adjustment, in terms of the utility wage, except at the end of each school year. This will spell widespread suffering for all fixed yearly salaries, while business prof-

its will mount and a sort of specious prosperity will descend on other workers with easily adjusted salaries.

THE CONSUMER AND GOVERNMENT

But prosperity will not permanently affect any class of consumers. Business through its handmaidens, advertising and salesmanship, has been bringing pressure to bear on consumers for many years, preventing them from attempting a higher standard of living, or of even being aware of their right to enjoy a higher standard of living. They do this by lowering both the quantity and quality of everything sold the consumer.

Business has long insisted on its rights to profits to the exclusion of all other considerations. It refuses to recognize that the only justifiable end of production is consumption. It has made profit and not salaries, wages, goods, or services the end of all production.

The system cheapens goods and services through misbranding, misleading advertising and salesmanship, the marketing of many useless and often harmful medicines and cosmetics, worthless gimmicks, withholding of inventions, the unnecessary introduction of new styles and fashions, and in the cheapening of the quality and quantity of food, clothing, shelter, and hundreds of sundry items in everyday use.

Contemporary business practices have a desperate grip on all phases of our social and political life through the press, radio, government, and the schools.

A public open to all the tricks of modern business can be easily sold into the acceptance of fascism. Business today has almost completely subjected the economic and social life of the American people to its control. One can hardly distinguish between present business methods of exploiting our schools and our consumer habits and the exploitation by fascism in certain European countries. Business does these things by lowering the standard of living of consumer-workers through a lowering of the quality and quantity of the goods and services commonly used

¹ Adapted from *America's Capacity to Produce and America's Capacity to Consume* (A digest of studies made by the Falk Foundation, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, 1933-1934), p. 47.

by consumers. The next step may easily be reaction and fascism and we may be halfway toward it now.

BUSINESS WASTES

Remove from business the right to make wholly fraudulent claims from advertising and the foundation of business will crumble. Establish standards to test goods, teach these standards in the public schools, and much of our consumer waste will cease, with the result shown in a higher standard of living for the consumer-citizen.

What are modern business wastes? Consider the methods employed by practically all business organizations:

1. High-pressure salesmanship
2. Puffing
3. Testimonials
4. Prostitution of "science" for fraudulent selling
5. Selling poisonous and shoddy goods
6. Use of brands and trade-marks to conceal price and value.
7. Using tradenames to mislead buyers
8. Aiding obsolescence by introducing styles and fashions
9. Adulteration
10. Propaganda and whispering campaigns
11. Battling against establishing standards
12. Employment of "hell-fire" advertising
13. The promotion of frauds
14. Lowering quality to a "tolerance" grade
15. Commercializing sex in advertising appeals

An examination of the outline in Problems of the Consumer, which is presented, should leave several strong impressions. First is the dominant attitude of resentment against the misuse of all forms of social control—advertising, salesmanship, slogans, propaganda, and pressure, for example. There is also a definitely aggressive attitude against the morality of the owning and selling group, the grasping merchant, the seller of meretricious medicines and cosmetics, the advertiser who misrepresents, the hog-tied press, those who control income and living standards, the lowering of citizen morals and tastes, and a revolt against business fascism and reaction-aryism.

WILL THEY CRACK DOWN?

So far no instructor of this kind of course has reported that business men (and merchants) have "cracked down on them," although many have expressed the fear that it may happen.² So far as this writer is concerned no one has "cracked down" and there is no evidence of its occurrence in the near future. It is largely a matter of honest salesmanship on the part of the teacher. Pupils and parents rarely look beyond the label on the package. If the teacher will use only a little discretion and pointedly and frequently disavow any self-interest or connection with liberal groups, he will have little trouble. If he has made community contacts with Rotary, Kiwanis, or Lions Clubs, and belongs to fraternal and political organizations, or any other reactionary and backward groups, he has his label ready-made for him. Not only scoundrels hide themselves under the cloak of patriotism; wise teachers with a mission to perform and vision enough to see the problem through and through do likewise. Then, too, social justice is on the side of the teacher and communities usually sense an honest worth-while attempt to help future citizens.

The groups and individuals that teachers might be more cognizant of are those who hold administrative positions in our public-school systems—the principals and superintendents. These individuals, as a group, are timid, mousy, reactionaries who spend too much time protecting their own vested interests and the status quo. In a large sense they are not true educators. They are the guardians of the old order. Nor do they deal with true education except as they trip upon it blindly in their systems. They are business men, organizers, the mouthpieces of a traditional institution whose duty in the past has been to compel conformity to the social and economic *mores*, not to educate for present

² Henry Harap, *Survey of Twenty-Eight Courses in Consumption*, Curriculum Laboratory, School of Education, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio (February 12, 1935), p. 3.

and future life. Real education never began with an administrator; it always began with a teacher and probably always will.

It takes time and finesse to convert heads of school systems. Yet it has been done and can be done again by any one who can see beyond his nose and has the courage, conviction, and facts in his possession to do it.

WHAT MIGHT BE TAUGHT

Modern life consists essentially of three phases: economic activity, recreational activity, and social activity. These activities overlap, but so far as secondary training is concerned it is necessary to train youths to buy a living, to earn a living, have a great deal of fun, and to behave themselves as they associate with others. They know that traditional subject matter has little to do with the first phase, much to do with the second, slightly with the third, and only in spots with the fourth. And even with the first phase nearly all emphasis has been placed first on the productive skills of earning, second on saving, and third on spending. Probably, emphasis in economic activities should now be placed in this order: first spending, second saving, third earning.

Research studies have presented sufficient evidence to show that consumer education has been neglected or is nonexistent. There is detailed evidence that marketing skills far outshine consumption skills.

During 1932-1933 and 1934, correspondence with teachers who were working in the field of consumption was carried on by the writer. Outlines from secondary schools, women's clubs, and universities were obtained and examined.

College texts, State and Federal Government bulletins, *Consumers' Research Bulletins*, current periodicals, and treatises such as *The Education of the Consumer*,³ *100,000,000 Guinea Pigs*,⁴ *Partners in Plun-*

der,⁵ and *The Common Practice of Fraud*⁶ were freely used for source materials.

From these sources those outlines centering around psychology and culture, economics, general business practice, science, and chemistry were excluded because they were not predominant in this field.

After assembling the courses from all available sources the material was separated into topics and classified under five main headings. Items which were irrelevant were discarded. Related items were filed on cards. The items were then combined to give a well-rounded outline since many were too repetitive and weak to offer alone. The topics retained make up the course of study which is presented. The subtopics in this outline were omitted to permit greater simplicity.

The method of collecting data used in this study was similar to that carried on by Harap during 1934-1935.⁷ This course of study, however, does not have the mass of details, the scope, or the degree of objectivity contained in Harap's study.

The sequential arrangement of topics is intended to be suggestive. It may be used for one course; it may be useful for several courses. Some instructors may prefer a different approach than the cultural. They may prefer to study topics by commodities or by purchasing problems. Others may prefer to study problems of price, advertising, misbranding, or even politics—economic reform. Some may prefer to emphasize income and standards of living, or sources of consumer help. All are in the outline presented and all are admittedly not objectively determined within the strict meaning of the term. While the course as presented is the outcome of three years' experience, it is constantly being modified and may be taught from the commodity approach next year.

³ J. B. Matthews and R. E. Shallcross, *Partners in Plunder* (New York: Covici, Friede, Inc., 1935), vi + 444 pages.

⁴ T. Swann Harding, *The Common Practice of Fraud* (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1935), vii + 376 pages.

⁵ Henry Harap, *op. cit.*

³ Henry Harap, *The Education of the Consumer* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924), xxii + 360 pages.

⁴ Arthur Kallet and F. J. Schlink, *100,000,000 Guinea Pigs* (New York: Vanguard Press, 1932), xi + 312 pages.

The most effective organization of subject matter is a problem for future workers in this field to answer through research and experiment. This study does not answer the problem. The future will determine whether consumption is to be taught as a separate subject, a part of many subjects, or as an integrating course. The courses of study examined reflected a trend toward a separate course or a part of other courses. This study presents the subject material as a separate course. Yet the final organization is subject to educational trends and will need to be decided in the future along with hundreds of other philosophical problems.

TOPICAL OUTLINE FOR A COURSE IN
PROBLEMS OF THE CONSUMER

Part A. *The Mind of the Consumer*

1. How our buying is controlled
2. The influence of social inheritance
3. Balanced consumption

Part B. *The Consumer's Money Problems*

1. How the price system affects the consumer
2. The consumer's income
3. How taxes and tariffs affect the consumer

4. Consumer wastes
5. Standards and scales of living
6. How to make spending plans
7. Personal loans

Part C. *Sources of Consumer Information and Help*

1. The reliability of brands, labels, and trademarks
2. The reliability of salesmen and advertising
3. "Seals of approval"
4. Federal, State, and city bureaus
5. Consumer's research, Association of University Women
6. Interpretation and use of specifications

Part D. *Buying Skills for the Consumer*

1. How to buy drugs, medicines, and cosmetics
2. How to recognize frauds
3. How to detect psychology frauds
4. How to buy autos and refrigerators
5. How to buy food
6. How to buy clothing and fabrics
7. How to buy or rent a home
8. How to buy insurance
9. How to manage savings and investments
10. Where to buy at retail

Part E. *Planned Economy*

1. How business cycles affect consumer welfare
2. A new economic system for the consumer

Recommendations for the Adequate Teachers' Meeting

Dwight L. Wilson

The possibilities of any school can be measured by the degree in which the members of the faculty, individually and as a group, have been professionalized. The degree in which the faculty is professionalized can be estimated by almost any one who attends a faculty meeting and applies the standards recommended below by the author. Mr. Wilson, principal of the Jacksonville Beach School, Jacksonville Beach, Florida, will welcome your comments on his article.

MANY SCHOOL administrators fail to realize that the faculty meeting reflects the tone of the school, shows the attitude of the teachers toward professional development, indicates the standing of the principal as a professional leader, and offers a measure of the effectiveness of the entire school organization. The principal of the large high school finds the faculty meeting one of the finest opportunities for the professional stimulation of his teachers, and his best opportunity to establish clearly his claim to the professional and scholarly leadership of his faculty. Likewise, in small institutions, the principal, burdened with a heavy load of teaching and often with the supervision of the elementary school as well, finds the faculty meetings the only adequate means of knowing well his teachers, and leading them in any program of professional study.

Possibly the greatest advantage of the adequate teachers' meeting is the growth of the teachers. Through these meetings they are afforded the opportunity of expressing themselves before their associates, thus matching their work with members of their department. Through their free discussion many worth-while ideas are passed on, while many are also discarded for want of value. Professionally, the teachers are able to keep abreast of the newer thoughts in the educational field, and to know of the general trends as sponsored and advocated by prominent educators. Many teachers who have grown stagnant or are habitually in the educational

rut are able to renew their enthusiasm, and become impregnated with the more noble and valuable aspects of education.

Principals usually recognize three main types of teachers' meetings. The first type is purely a business session of the faculty sitting as a legislative body and passing upon concrete problems as they arise in the organization and administration of the school. More frequently, possibly, these meetings are referred to as "general meetings" because of the less specific nature of the problems and because the questions are more general in nature. It is through the general meeting that the superintendent, principal, or supervisor should seek to discuss matters pertaining to administrative routine, the course of study, the general needs and requirements, to help all teachers understand the program as planned, to bring about cooperation, and common standards of judgment. Matters pertaining to the interrelation between teachers with respect to certain duties and responsibilities, their duty to the principal and the superintendent, and their relation with the janitor and other employees may also be considered at these meetings. Special care should be exercised to see that those teachers who are new in the system have a clear understanding of the duties and responsibilities which they share jointly or in common with other teachers.

General meetings may be held periodically or as occasion demands. As to how often they should be held, there is no authority and

little agreement. It is quite generally maintained, however, that they should be held as often as once a month, and at regular intervals. Occasionally, it will be necessary to have a called meeting in order to take care of matters which need immediate attention.

From time to time a general meeting may well be held for social or inspirational purposes. It is usually well to hold a social meeting just before the school opens in the fall or soon thereafter. Such a meeting, while social in nature, should nevertheless aim to promote a spirit of common interest and good fellowship, and to smooth the path for all teachers, especially those who are new in the system.

The second type of teachers' meeting is known as the "special meeting." This type of meeting is usually held for the purpose of considering matters that concern the teachers of certain subjects, grades, or departments only. In such meetings, confined to a limited number of teachers, and called for a purpose in which all are directly interested, a more thorough and intensive study can be made of the subject or problems under consideration. These meetings should be informal—questions and suggestions always in order, frank and free discussion encouraged and secured. On the other hand, all members should be held on the subjects or questions under consideration, and all trivial and irrelevant matters should be avoided in order that the meeting may not be prolonged. Ordinarily such meetings should not be over an hour in length and should begin and close on time.

In the special meeting, plans, methods, devices for teaching, materials on different subjects, experiments, and investigations may be discussed. One or more times during the semester, teachers may be required to bring to these meetings papers prepared on a given subject or phase of their work or specimens of work done by their pupils. Books and magazine articles may also be reviewed at these meetings. The subject or problems to be discussed should be announced some time

in advance, in order that teachers may have an opportunity to prepare themselves for taking an active part in the discussion or to talk on any phase of the matter in which they may be especially interested. A teacher may well lead these meetings from time to time.

Occasionally in meetings of lower grade teachers, it is well to have a class conducted by some teacher who is especially well prepared to do so. When this is done, attention should be called beforehand to the methods and principles to be demonstrated and studied. The class should be so conducted that the process is clearly brought out, and further discussed by the teachers later. Inexperienced teachers will, as a rule, profit more by such a demonstration than by a general discussion of the methods and principles under consideration.

From time to time the teachers of two or more consecutive grades should meet to discuss and make a study of the subject matter that precedes and follows their particular work on a given subject. It is important that the teachers have an understanding of the sequence and continuity of the correlation of their part to the whole.

In small school systems where there are fewer than ten to twenty teachers, and where the superintendent himself teaches regular classes, it may be impractical to hold many special meetings for teachers of separate grades and subjects. Here it is often more practical to talk over some things with the teachers individually, whenever it may be convenient or seem advisable, and to take up other matters at general meetings of all teachers. The best results will be obtained, however, if at least some of the meetings are held separately with the teachers of one or a few consecutive grades, and those with a given subject in departmentalized or high-school work. One of the chief advantages in this is that it affords an opportunity for all teachers to discuss with one another their respective problems, experiences, and views.

Another way to take care of both general

and special matters, without requiring all teachers to sit through a lengthy meeting and listen to discussion of which a small part concerns them individually, is to have the grade teachers or those of a given subject convene at some designated meeting place a half hour or so in advance of the others, during which time matters may be discussed which concern them only. Following this, the matters that concern all teachers may be taken up, and when these have been discussed or disposed of those teachers who arrived first may be excused while the others remain another half hour to discuss their special problems. In following this method, however, it is necessary to plan carefully in advance the matters to be considered by each of the special divisions and by all teachers.

The third type or "professional meeting" is without doubt the greatest integrating force of all the meetings. The organization is relatively simple because it is possible for the series of meetings to be planned well in advance. There is ample provision for teacher participation; in fact a very good plan of organization provides that every member of the faculty shall appear once. Topics may be decided upon which vary from psychological and educational problems to the most concrete of our everyday troubles and experiences, and discussion of these topics should be free and unrestricted. It is the aim to secure adequate explanation and discussion of every change in school policy of any importance in order to adjust the wide differences of opinion among the faculty, and to work out a thorough understanding of an approved program.

Leadership in professional study is one of the newest and finest professional opportunities of the principal. It is possible to keep the school faculty organized as a group of professional students and their meetings comparable to the high-type university seminars. Four important outcomes of such leadership are: (1) stimulation of high scholarly attainments, (2) straight thinking upon present-day educational problems, (3)

a desire to read the best writing in one's own related fields, and (4) a willingness to give some time for study in systematic, organized form. It is an educational achievement when faculties grow keen for discussion of current educational literature, when they know the men and women of national educational prominence, and when they study and understand the shifting trends of educational problems or movement.

If the meetings are to be successful, the principal must see to it that they appeal to his teachers as vital, interesting, and profitable ones. One writer has declared that just here the soundness of his technical training, his scholarly background, his knowledge of human nature, his professional enthusiasm, and his administrative skill will receive their greatest tests. If the professional faculty meetings are to strengthen the spirit of unity and loyalty, arouse ambition, further professional growth both of a theoretical and practical nature, unify the spirit and aim of the group, all members of the faculty must contribute in a vital way to a series of programs planned thoughtfully to achieve precisely their goals. Moreover, the principal must see to it that the discussions are specific enough to offer professional improvement to every teacher and general enough to reach the varied interests of this group of highly trained specialists. Wiser and more modern principals build their programs around the newer concepts of intelligence, the significance of individual differences, the overlapping of intelligence, the newer ideas of mental discipline, oncoming curricular changes, the faculty responsibilities growing out of vastly increased numbers of students in high school, college, and university, and scores of other problems of major interests. It is obvious that the material covered must show variety and yet unity; they must have some evident, definite purpose and indicate some vivid suggestions for school and class betterment. Often it will be well if the programs are built upon the various interpretations of the aims of education in general, and

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their implications for the school in particular. They also may well take the form of reports upon readings, the study of new books, high points of recent educational publications, and even at times technical instruction on the part of the principal.

After an investigation of the subject of the adequate teachers' meeting there follows a suggested year's program.

One of the necessities for successful work in this connection is a teachers' library of books of educational subjects, which can be collected through the teachers or from temporary loans from public or State university libraries.

The professional meetings are to be held for one hour on the second and third Monday of each school month in the teachers' restroom, immediately after school. The meetings are to be posted at the beginning of the school term. A week prior to the date of the next meeting, a detailed account of the things to be considered and discussed as provided in the general outline should be posted. It is understood that each teacher is to be prepared and ready to take an active part in the work. On the first and third Monday of each school month, thirty minutes will be devoted, at the close of school, for general and special meetings as they are announced at a prior date.

The suggested year's program with a few references follows:

FIRST MEETING: Report of experiences during the summer pertinent to education. Such a report may be:

1. Discussion of some tour of some institution, factory, etc.
2. Excursion to Europe, the mountains, the lakes, the World's Fair, New York City, etc.
3. A term paper in summer school
4. Miscellaneous experiences from which some benefit may be derived by the group

SECOND MEETING: Determining the definition of education, philosophy, and psychology that is to be applied to the particular school

References:

1. *Psychology for Students of Education*—Gates

2. *The Learning Process*—Colvin
3. *How We Think*—Dewey
4. *What Is Education?*—Moore

THIRD MEETING: Evaluation of various leading methods of instruction

References:

1. *Types of Teaching*—Earhart
2. *Project Method of Teaching*—Stevenson
3. *Method of Teaching in the High School*—Parker
4. *Curriculum Practices and Principles*—Hopkins

FOURTH MEETING: Evening social. Meeting to be held in the school gymnasium or, preferably, in the dining room of the hotel. Entertainment, refreshments, etc., to be provided. Local trustees, board members, and superintendent to be invited by the faculty

FIFTH MEETING: System of evaluating student work. Purpose of marks, normal curve of distribution, etc. Systems of marking

References:

1. *The Supervision of City Schools*—Bobbitt
2. *Education*—Thorndike
3. *Principles of Teaching*—Thorndike
4. *Measuring Educational Results*—Ayers

SIXTH MEETING: Lesson planning, types of plans, purposes of plans, when necessary, value of plans

References:

1. *Methods of Teaching*—Charters
2. *The Teaching Process*—Strayer
3. *Method of the Recitation*—McMurray
4. Periodical literature

SEVENTH MEETING: Good discipline. What is its essence? How may we improve the discipline of the school?

References:

1. *Classroom Management*—Bagley
2. *Principles of Psychology*—James
3. *The American High School*—Brown

EIGHTH MEETING: Intelligence tests, achievement tests, etc. Leading types. Validity of such tests. Technique of giving such tests. Outline of progress to be developed for the system

References:

1. *Measuring the Results of Teaching*—Monroe
2. *Improving School by Standardized Tests*—Brooks
3. *Educational Measurements*—Gilliland

NINTH MEETING: The value of community contacts on the part of the teacher. Are we doing

all we can to develop these? Good to come from such contacts. Influence on the school

References:

1. *Administration and Supervision of High School*—Johnson
2. *Why Communities Appreciate the High School*—Review
3. Periodicals (these to be listed)

TENTH MEETING: Discussion of progressive movements in other school systems. Each teacher prepares a brief but concise report

References: Any personal knowledge, periodicals, or books

ELEVENTH MEETING: Teachers' rating plans. Discussion of various methods. Self-analysis. Suggested form to be used in our school

References:

1. *Thorough Efficiency in Supervision and Teaching*—Crabbs
2. *How to Measure in Education*—McCall
3. *Educational Administration and Supervision*—Anderson

TWELTH MEETING: Study of current educational literature

1. New books dealing with educational problems
2. Periodicals, outstanding developments
3. Résumé of educational conferences

THIRTEENTH MEETING: The curriculum. Recommendations for next year. History of development. Changes now taking place

References:

1. *The Curriculum*—Bobbit
2. *Curriculum Construction*—Charters
3. *Curriculum Problems*—Briggs

FOURTEENTH MEETING: School attendance. How the teacher may be responsible. Work of enforcement agents. Curriculum influences. Health, economic factors, etc.

References: Periodicals of recent issue

FIFTEENTH MEETING: School laws. What are they? How are we influenced? Are we violating any of the provisions set forth?

References: Bulletins from State Department of Education

SIXTEENTH MEETING: Making the summer vacation count professionally

1. Attending summer school
2. Excursion trips. How planned. Secure literature
3. Inspection of field trips

SEVENTEENTH MEETING: Proposals for next year. New problems. Things to discontinue. Each teacher to make suggestions. Summary

EIGHTEENTH MEETING: Social meeting. Meeting of farewell

From my investigation of the subject of teachers' meetings I have concluded that the following list of general and specific hints of its organization and administration would not only be of importance to a school principal and teachers, but to supervisors and superintendents as well. The list follows:

1. Teachers' meetings should be thoroughly planned.
2. Teachers should participate in the planning.
3. Meetings should be based upon the teachers' problems.
4. Teachers should be divided into groups of common interests.
5. Meetings should be definite and concrete.
6. Topics should be live issues.
7. Meetings should begin on time and adjourn on time.
8. Ordinarily the meeting should not be over an hour in length, and should not be allowed to drag.
9. Do not permit complaining and fault-finding. The professional meeting is not a place for personal troubles.
10. Meetings should not be called or held for the purpose of giving out directions that could as well be mimeographed.
11. A few loquacious teachers should not be allowed to monopolize the time.
12. No discussion should be allowed to drift into unfriendly controversy.
13. Meetings may well be held bimonthly.
14. The first of the week is the most desirable time for the meeting.
15. Meetings should be held after the close of the school day.
16. Meetings should be held in comfortable rooms.
17. Principals should not use the teachers' meetings for scolding their teachers.

18. Teachers should not talk of the fail-
ings of the pupils in these meetings.

19. Teachers should be encouraged to take
an active part in the meetings and should
feel free to ask questions.

20. Some things may well be left to the
vote of the teachers and they should have a
part in deciding important matters.

21. Make it clearly understood that no
teacher is to be excused from attending
teachers' meetings.

22. Keep a record of the proceedings of
each meeting.

23. Arrange to have an account of the
professional meeting published in the local
paper.

Four Joes

Henry Craig Seasholes

With a convincing and refreshing directness, wholly unsupported by pedagogical shibboleths, the author presents the case for guidance as he himself has practised it in sympathetic contacts with students at the John Adams High School in Cleveland, Ohio. THE CLEARING HOUSE awards him the degree he has so obviously merited, that of guide, philosopher, and friend.

THE GUIDANCE movement in Ohio is gaining momentum and is moving forward in spite of the fact that State appropriations and other revenues have been curtailed. Administrators are wise in seeing the dollar-saving economy of adequate guidance. It is to the credit of the basic principles that it continues to grow during this depression.

The real strength of the movement, however, will be manifest only when the homeroom and classroom teachers become interested in it. The greater bulk must be done by these agencies anyway, so the leaders in the guidance movement should bend every effort to recruit homeroom and classroom teachers.

Teachers especially are apt to feel that guidance is something stupendous and untouchable, or they are inclined to think it will make their load heavier. If they can be made to feel that it is a simple matter they will gain satisfaction and success in learning about it. If they find they have the art of guidance, they will have a desire to learn its science. They will embrace its ideals, will learn more about it, and will make the greatest contribution to the guidance movement that has yet been made.

Let those who are leaders in guidance preach its friendship and common sense and simplicity, and the guidance idea will capture the educational world. I have heard it said that some schools have failed miserably in their guidance attempts because the job was handed over to teachers who were not trained. Of course, we need specialists for certain cases and to foster the movement, but it is absurd to think that any teacher is

not capable of doing a fair job. Let me illustrate.

If I say in my homeroom, "Joe, come here," four boys will respond. They answer to the same name but they are very different. Let us call them Joe B, Joe L, Joe M, and Joe N.

Joe B's father, Joe tells me, is a "big shot" here in this city. His mother was divorced when Joe was six months old. His father contributed toward his support until last September when Joe reached the age of sixteen. Joe told me about this one day when we were out rabbit hunting together. Joe is good-looking, popular with the girls, and gets along fairly well in school.

Joe L comes from a good home. His father works at a bank and both parents are ardent members of an Evangelical Church. He is an only son and has had just about everything he needs. Although popular he becomes easily discouraged and has difficulty taking the little bumps of life. I said that he came from a good home but I should have qualified it. Although deeply religious his father backslides once in a while, gets drunk, and throws chinaware. Joe tells me his troubles. He has been a staunch adherent of mine ever since I bought a ten-cent ticket for a show at his church.

Joe M is an exceptionally good basketball player, and has a brother who is a college star. Joe made the high-school team but then failed a subject and lost his place and is playing in a church league now. He has traveled around the world quite a bit. He is capable of good work but scarcely does even

fair work. When he first came into my home-room he was cynical and slightly snobbish, and at first he would not talk much about his plans. After a faculty basketball game in which I played, he went out of his way to talk to me. His discovery that I was interested in basketball caused his entire attitude to change. The English schoolmaster's idea of teacher participation in sports is a good one, I think, and I hope I will always be able to indulge in some kind of athletics.

Joe N is an Italian boy with a police record. He tells me the reason they put him in jail was because there was some candy stolen from a candy store and they happened to find it on him. He insists that that is the truth, although he knows that I do not believe it. Even Joe has to smile a little bit when he tells it. I felt that I made a big mistake in handling him. I figured the only way to be successful with him was to use a rigid discipline. I would tell him to be at a fixed place at a certain time and would scare him so badly that he would be there. Proud was I of my iron discipline, but it took an attractive little English teacher, whom we will call Miss Aggie Patty, to make something of Joe.

One day Joe was doing a little extra work for me and I noticed that he was studying. When I had overcome the first effects of the shock, I found out that he was memorizing parts of a play. He conveyed to me that Miss Aggie Patty thought he had histrionic ability and that some day he would make a good actor. That was a kind of opening wedge for me to talk to Joe about something he was interested in. Later Joe told me something

of his home conditions.

He has a stepmother who has an own son just about Joe's age. Now it is very evident that in a situation like this the choicest bits go to Joe's stepbrother. At best, it is not an ideal situation for Joe's happiness. I now can see reasons for Joe's unfavorable attitude toward school and society, but Miss Aggie Patty has found the cure. Joe probably will not get into any more trouble with the police. He is pretty busy here at school; too busy to cut class any more. He carries all his major subjects and is taking an extra noncredit course in typing so that when he writes plays he will be able to write more quickly. I really think Joe will continue to be a good citizen as long as he has an absorbing interest in English and dramatics.

These four Joes are four friends of mine so I think I have a basis for guidance. All I have to do now is to use some common sense in helping these boys select their courses of study. Does it make any difference if I teach Latin or cabinet-making? Does it make any difference if I have no college degree? I will still be interested in finding out as many things as I can to help these boys, because it is a natural instinct to want to help a friend.

If you count yourself among the pioneers, among the leaders in this guidance movement, then you are firmly convinced of its worth. If you want to see it surge forward and make its contribution to the advance of education, then go abroad throughout the land and preach that the fundamentals of guidance are friendship, common sense, and simplicity.

Character Training and the Schools

Elvin H. Fishback

The author, principal of the junior high school at Anderson, Indiana, believes in the "unconquerable rectitude" of human nature; but he lines up with those who hold that goodness is not automatic, and that through direct teaching, when it is definite and concrete, children can be aided to a useful knowledge of the solutions to moral questions that the race has evolved during untold ages. This is very close to heresy, of course, for it might be taken to mean that students should be graduated not for knowing but for being or for becoming.

OUTSIDE OF my window I hear "Stick 'em up." I look out and see only a group of ten-year-old boys playing bandit. The boys themselves do not realize it, but they have been profoundly influenced by the radical social and industrial changes of the last twenty-five years. These very changes are rapidly making peremptory demands upon the public schools that will eventually change the course of education. What are the schools to do?

Business and professional men and women have modified their demands of the schools. A few years ago they asked for better training in reading, writing, and arithmetic. They are now fairly well satisfied with the results in the fundamental subjects just mentioned, but they have discovered, much to the chagrin of the schools, that young people lack many of the personality traits that are, and always will be, important in business and professional life. They ask for more honesty and industry. More courtesy would be very acceptable.

Adults and children alike are changed by the new social and industrial conditions that are upon us. Many adults have lulled themselves into semicontentment with the feeling that, after all, there are no standards of conduct that are binding. Children are subjected to so many new social experiences that they are likely to emerge with ideals as heterogeneous as their variant experiences.

As one example of such changes, the home at the present time is radically different

from what it was a generation ago. It has not failed but it has changed. Women have entered the world of work outside of the home. Clubs and social activities for both men and women have grown by leaps and bounds. Divorces have increased at an augmenting rate. An investigation was made in a large high school, enrolling children from twelve to sixteen years of age, to find out how many of them came from broken homes—homes in which either the father or mother, or both, are missing. Two hundred and fifty boys and girls out of one thousand, or one in every four, came from such homes. Many came from homes in which neither father nor mother is present. Evidently, the home will need some assistance in its moral training of children.

The church is deep and far-reaching in its influence upon young people, but it has lost much of its authority and great numbers of people are not directly influenced by the church. It is interesting to note that in the year 1840, 88 per cent of the population of the United States were church members, while in the year 1913 church membership was but 33.3 per cent. The efforts of the church must be supplemented by an institution that reaches all of the people.

There are three new inventions that have had a profound influence upon the lives of young people. When seven-thirty in the evening arrives, the boy or girl of the present time has three modes of activity that were not available to the youth of twenty-

five years ago. They may remain at home and listen to the various programs given over the radio; they may go to the motion-picture theater and take a chance of seeing and hearing something worth while; or they may get into an automobile and be quickly transported beyond their immediate neighborhood. All of the experiences made possible by these three inventions tend to stimulate curiosity and an interest in affairs outside of the local community.

Schools have held an intellectual emphasis in the past. They have thought and taught that character was a by-product that always evolved after certain intellectual acts. By some form of alchemy, so much mathematics, history, grammar, literature, and composition, with a small mixture of art and music, compounded with industry, would bring forth that most desired result—a noble character.

Gradually, a change is coming over the schools and their leaders. Great numbers of children are enrolled in the schools and colleges who formerly withdrew because they could not jump the intellectual hurdles set by the school. Educators are giving up the old scholastic standards in favor of others that call for the socialization of the child. Education is bound to function in such results as attitudes, ideals, traits, and habits. If this is true, then the intellectual phase of school training becomes a means to an end instead of the end itself. Character, considered in its broadest aspects, becomes the real end of school education.

As the school undertakes this new responsibility, there are certain obligations that are imperative. The old formal academic type of school, which was taken from the sparsely settled rural districts of years ago and transported almost bodily to the thickly settled centers of population, must and is giving way to a new type of school. The new school provides for the full participation of children. They no longer sit at desks and move and think only in response to the teachers' questions. They are originators.

They are creative. Instead of the pupil-teacher relations that existed in the old type of school, there are plenty of pupil-pupil and teacher-pupil contacts. In the old type of academic school, there were very few opportunities for the use of the traits of character, except at playtime. The truth of it is that the schools in the time of Andrew Jackson, in the rural districts, depended upon the life outside the school to give opportunities for the use of those traits that are concerned with social behavior. Many parents are, secretly, if not openly, placing a high value upon that part of the school training that helps children to understand how to adjust themselves to the persons about them. This accounts for the great increase in popularity of social activities in college as against the scholastic ideals of a century ago. More emphasis, instead of less, will likely be given to the personality-forming activities of schools and colleges than is given even at the present time. One enthusiastic leader has declared that the public high school of the future will be organized around the student activities of the school.

However potent this social participation may be, there are other valuable things that the school can do for young people. In spite of the claims of a few persons to the contrary, there are some moral solutions that have been evolved through the slow, agonizing process of trial and error. It is unfair to children to permit them to grow into adult life without a knowledge of the partial or complete solutions of moral questions that have been evolved through the ages. In other words, life is too short to expect the human being to learn from actual experience all that the race has learned during the untold ages that have preceded us.

Two notions that have interfered with character work with children have had a following inside and outside of the school. There is a rather general belief that, after all, children do not desire the better way, except perhaps as the Christmas season approaches. It is true that children have a

protective arrangement that wards off much of the abstract advice given by teachers, parents, and grandparents. It is probably well that such is the case, because if this advice should be taken *in toto* by the children and young people, disastrous results to the growth of personality would inevitably follow.

There is a large and growing group of persons who believe that all normal children, as well as adults, experience an upward pull from which they cannot escape. An inscription on a tablet in Boston Common erected to the memory of William Ellery Channing quotes from his writings and names this upward pull the "unconquerable rectitude" of human nature. Teachers and parents, and all persons who deal with children and young persons are beginning to recognize this unconquerable rectitude. A short journey back into history reveals a belief that children, as well as adults, had a stronger pull toward wrongdoing.

The other notion that has prevented the schools from doing more with character training has been the belief that all that can be done is being done through the regular subjects of instruction. If this were true, compulsory education of all children would help to solve most of the ills of social life, because at the present time we are educating all the children of all the people in the regular school subjects. Illiteracy has practically disappeared, but not so with crime and general maladjustment. The school found out long ago that young people are not interested in abstract discussions of honesty, industry, courtesy, and other so-called traits of character. This caused an abandonment of practically all plans for character training, except that received through the regular school subjects.

New studies of personality development have shown that character is formed in the medium of experience. In these experiences,

attitudes, ideals, and habits are acquired in connection with definite situations. Are children interested in the outcome of these experiences? Talk over some of them with the children and be convinced. A girl thirteen years of age was reprimanded by her teacher for whispering. The teacher was not very considerate in what she said, but she probably did not know that she had seriously wounded Jessie's feeling. Jessie wrote the following poem that expressed her feelings:

Why is it that little things can hurt one so—
Little things that sting and bite your heart to tears?
Big hurts can dull themselves with pain—
Little ones hold their sting for years.

Out of the experiences of life emerges an equipment of skills, attitudes, ideals, and habits that make for personality adjustment or maladjustment. Conscious attention to these experiences, by means of group discussion, tends to replace badly adjusted behavior with more rational conduct. In fact, situations may be anticipated and preparation made for future conduct responses.

The school is beginning to take account of the radical social changes of the last quarter of a century. It will find a new responsibility in the training of character, to supplement the efforts of other institutions that have assumed most of the burden in the past. The outcome of school training will be measured in terms of attitudes, ideals, traits, and habits in the future. The nature of the school itself must be changed to perform this function. Much can be done in direct teaching, if the proper materials and methods are used and the work is made definite and concrete.

The schools cannot escape their responsibility of added emphasis upon the training of character. As goes character training in the schools, so in the main will go the quality of civilization and the spiritual destiny of the human family. The schools are beginning to assume this new responsibility.

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American Secondary Education and the Future

William L. Wrinkle

It is the custom for our prophets to read the trends and base their predictions on these. But Dr. Wrinkle, writing at the Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado, has had the special kind of vision necessary to see beneath and beyond trends. He analyzes the forces which motivate the trends, and he dares to go on record here with his prediction as to the nature of the American high school in the not-too-distant future. His whole thesis stands or falls, of course, on his assumption that common sense will be a principal determinant in shaping the new high school.

IN THE evolution of American secondary education three distinct institutions have developed. Two of them have been displaced. Today we are again in a period of transition. The influences which were responsible for the disappearance of the forerunners of the present public high school are at work. The future of American secondary education is a challenging problem.

BASES FOR PROJECTING SECONDARY EDUCATION

There are at least three approaches to the task of projecting our thinking with respect to the future of American secondary education. First, we may project our thinking on the basis of trends which have been evident in the evolution of education from its beginnings to the present time. On such basis we would be warranted in concluding that secondary education will continue to include more and more of the potential school population, and that the educational program will be extended upward locally to include those now so unfortunately located geographically that their participation in the program for education beyond the senior-high-school level is impossible. We might continue on the basis of trends and consider the significance for the future of the increasing flexibility of college-entrance requirements, the rapid development of social-integrative activities,

and the displacement of specialized courses by general courses.

A second attack on this problem of characterizing the secondary education of the future would be to approach it from the angle of developments in educational science, the influence of the modern philosophies, and the newer concepts of education. The increasing acceptance of a philosophy which recognizes that education is life and the concept which regards education as the development of personality in place of the concepts of education as the acquiring of knowledge and information, as mental discipline, or as preparation would certainly permit much stimulating speculation.

There is a third approach which may be utilized in looking to the future of secondary education, that is from the point of view of the eventual application of common sense.

ARE TRENDS A SAFE BASIS FOR LOOKING TO THE FUTURE?

The anticipation of a realization of projected trends in a given area is necessarily based on an assumption that modifying influences in other areas will continue to operate as they have previously. The rapid growth of enrollments in secondary schools in the past decade has been stimulated by economic conditions characterized by an oversupply of labor needed to meet the de-

mands for the products of labor. So long as this condition continues, other factors being favorable, we may expect the secondary schools to continue to enroll an increasing proportion of the potential pupil population. But if and when there should arise a scarcity of labor it would be reasonable to anticipate the tide of secondary-school youth flowing in the opposite direction away from, rather than toward, the school. This conclusion is based on the idea that the growth of secondary education in the past decade has been in a large measure forced upon the school; it is a condition for which the school is warranted in claiming little responsibility or credit.

Predicting what the secondary school and secondary education of tomorrow will be on the basis of trends may be an interesting exercise, but such predictions a few years from now might be as humorous as are now the predictions made in 1929 that the United States was then on the threshold of an era of unprecedented prosperity.

Trends are merely the reflection of forces which act consistently. It would be far more significant to identify and study causes rather than to confine our attention entirely to the manifestation of such forces.

WHAT MAY BE ANTICIPATED FROM THE SCIENTIFIC MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION?

Projecting secondary education on the basis of the application of science in education is perhaps less promising. Although the scientific movement in education is as old as the century, the use or rather the misuse of its contributions has been negative and unfortunate to probably as great an extent as has been its positive influence. The scientific development in measurement has been utilized to perpetuate and promote the concept of education as the acquisition of knowledge and information. The invention of the curve of normal distribution has contributed to a rigid system of competitive marking. The development of intelligence testing has been utilized for the purpose of identifying and segregating students into dull, average, and

bright groupings as an administrative activity often without an adequate modification of curricular materials or instructional procedures. Perfected statistical techniques have been applied to invalid data for the purpose of establishing findings which are assumed to be valid and for the promotion of mental exercise on the graduate-school level.

This is not a criticism of science in education except as science has been misunderstood and misused in practice. The extent to which the scientific movement has contributed to the improvement of secondary education offers little encouragement in estimating its probable contribution in the near future. Science and philosophy must necessarily work together. Science can contribute only to the extent that we are willing to permit it to modify our philosophy. The error has been in our failure to modify our philosophy in terms of the contributions of science and in our desire to force science to serve the ends of unscientific educational philosophies and concepts.

WHAT HAS BEEN THE INFLUENCE OF THE NEWER PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION?

The prospects of modifying secondary education in terms of the newer philosophies and the newer concepts of education probably offer more promise. Its potential influence is retarded, however, by a tendency among educators to use their philosophies for purposes of learned discussion, argument, and advertisement rather than to use them in modifying their practices. It is now seventeen years since the pronouncement of the Seven Cardinal Principles. The chief results have been that now practically all teachers can recite them and can demonstrate, to their own satisfaction at least, that the area of their specialization makes a fundamental contribution to each and every one of the seven. They have been absorbed by a curriculum which was organized according to a contrasting concept of education. They have not remade the educational program. Until a philosophy is applied, little signifi-

cance may be attached to the vocalizations of its adherents. Under the wide acceptance of the philosophy that "education is life" and "education is growth" we continue to maintain a program which in the typical secondary school is predominantly an expression of the "education is preparation" concept with preparation aimed at college entrance for all, whether they can or should continue their education in that area of the school program.

COMMON SENSE, A BASIS FOR THE MODERNIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The most promising basis for hope that secondary education may become modernized, in my opinion, lies in the tendency of man to move in the direction of the application of common sense in his activities. Except as inhibited by the influence of superstitions and mental restrictions resulting from misguided education, the application of common sense in the regulation of our activities is unavoidable. When any phase of enlightened man's activity becomes too widely divorced from common sense, whether in the area of politics, economics, or education, the tendency in the direction of a return to common-sense practice is strengthened. The discarding of the Latin-grammar school and the academy illustrates the tendency of the American people to apply common sense in its provision for educational opportunity. The public high school and the academy in the early years following their establishment were guided by common sense. Both departed therefrom and followed in the footsteps of academic leadership. The influences back of the junior-high-school movement and the progressive movement in the junior-college area parallel the public high school. The conventional secondary school is today witnessing the conflict of common sense versus outworn educational theories, a misdirected application of science, and an unfortunate dualism of theory and practice.

I trust that I have not overreached in stating what might be regarded as a fundamental assumption and that I have not been

unwarrantedly critical or pessimistic in my evaluation of current practice, philosophy, and the contributions of science and education. Probably this common-sense approach is no more than another statement of educational philosophy. There should be no dualism of philosophy and common sense. Common sense cannot be divorced from scientific information. One thing is certain—the common sense which I wish to call to your attention and the implications of such common sense to educational practice is in no respect new or original. It is unique only in the fact that it has not been utilized in the program for secondary education.

COMMON SENSE AND ITS APPLICATION IN THE MODERNIZING OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. *Justification for the support of education by society is limited by the extent to which it contributes social values. No teacher or school subject has a vested right to protection if such protection conflicts with provision for socially valuable experiences.* A critical examination of the curriculum for secondary education will reveal that only a minor portion of it is devoted to the type of education which a dynamic society has a right to expect. No serious attempt has been made on a comprehensive scale to reconstruct the curriculum of the secondary school. Curriculum revision for the most part has been piecemeal. As a result, the curriculum today is a patchwork, illustrative of the various concepts which have made their appearance in the evolution of American education.

Various studies within the past few years show that from two thirds to three fourths of the curriculum is devoted to academic subjects. In the small secondary schools this proportion of academic courses looms still larger. Such courses as Latin, algebra, and geometry are essentially defensible only on the basis of the concept of formal discipline. The typical history program and much of the science in the secondary school reflects the concept of education as the acquisition of

knowledge and information. Literature programs are still dominated by the aspiration to promote classical culture. All have been protected by college-entrance requirements, a halo of respectability, and the assumed vested rights of teachers who have devoted their professional preparation to specialization in those areas. Such justifications for the perpetuation of a program which cannot demonstrate social value will ultimately result in their displacement by a program defensible on the basis of yielding social value in return for social support.

2. *If education is to function in life it must be based upon and be organized in terms of life itself. Life experiences are neither confined to nor limited by the boundaries of the relatively isolated departments which characterize the organization of the secondary-school curriculum.* The organization of the curriculum for secondary education has been patterned after the organization developed in institutions of higher learning. There, knowledge is classified into divisions representing areas for specialization and research. In the field of science, mathematics is separated from physics, chemistry from biology, botany from zoölogy. Because of the challenge of research and intensive study the area of human relationships is divided into history, political science, sociology, economics, and so on. There can be no quarrel with this type of organization on the university level where study is directed to the end of contributing to knowledge. The utilization of an academically convenient pattern in the organization of the educational program for general education is, however, exceedingly difficult to defend.

The result of compartmentalizing secondary education, the division of the program within such compartments into relatively unrelated subjects and courses, and the attendant specialization of teachers whose education is confined largely to one of these compartments has done much to divorce secondary education from life.

In the world of human relations we do

not find politics divorced from economics, events without geography, or social problems without political, economic, geographical, and historical implications. Literature and art reflect the economic and political life of a people. Modern technology with its attendant social problems has resulted from scientific invention. In life we find little respect for academic boundaries recognized in the organization of the school program. The academic pattern of school organization is an obstacle to the development of an understanding of the broad problems which confront the individual at every hand. The academic pattern of organization will gradually give way first to an organization based on broad areas of experience and perhaps eventually to an educational program which will be as broad as the problems under consideration.

3. *Education is a continuous process.* The vertical organization of the school into convenient administrative units and the arrangement of the curriculum into blocks on a calendar-year basis is definitely in violation of the simple idea of continuity. Much effort has been expended in attempts to identify the peculiar functions of this or that administrative unit on the assumption that whatever peculiar functions may be assigned to the elementary school, the junior high school, or the senior high school may be realized exclusively within that area and that the unit next above may embark on a program having peculiar functions of its own.

The organization of the curriculum into annual courses each unrelated to those which precede it obviously is in disregard of the most elementary knowledge of variation in the rate of growth of the individual. Such organization is purely in terms of subject matter and fails to recognize the continuous growth of the individual.

The junior high school, by displacing specialized and relatively unrelated annual blocks of subject matter by continuous courses as represented by sequences in the social studies, general science, and general

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mathematics, has made practically the only progress on the secondary-school level in remedying this error. The chief obstacle toward improving the situation in the senior high school is the Carnegie unit which forces standardization in time units. If education must begin with what the individual knows and can do, it would be reasonable that in each subsequent year the individual should begin at the point to which he had developed in the previous year. Instead, in science one year is given to biology, followed by one year in physics, followed by one year in chemistry, none of which are related to or based upon the previous experience of the student in the science program. It is unfortunate that the high-school counter for credit designed as a college standardizing device should be permitted to retard the development of the high school in providing a continuous program of experiences. The Carnegie unit must be discarded as a measure of educational experience, and courses must be reorganized in conformity to the idea of continuity of learning.

4. *No two individuals are alike.* It was unnecessary for educational psychology to show by test data that variation rather than similarity characterizes the individuals who make up a group; teachers from the beginning had recognized individual differences. Because of a combination of influences, education has taken on the aspects of machine industry with all its implications of standardization and mass production. The rapid growth of school population and the absence of imagination and ingenuity on the part of teachers have led to the submerging of the individual as a basic unit and the recognition of the class as the unit in the educational program. Homogeneous grouping has been one of the solutions of educational science to the problem of individual differences, but the group as the basic unit, not the individual, still predominates. Group assignments based on the assumption of identical needs, abilities, and interests still persist in disregard to the apparent wide variation in needs,

capabilities, and interests of the individuals who make up the group.

Knowledge that the rate of growth of each individual is different from his fellows has not modified the idea that a calendar year is a calendar year and that somehow each individual, whether his growth rate is slow or rapid, must advance so much each year. If his endowment is inadequate we penalize him by low grades and failure; if it is high we permit him to waste his time and honor him by high marks and placing his name on the honor roll.

Diagnosis of the individual is a relatively unknown and unpractised art in teaching, and the possible adjustment of the educational program to meet the needs, abilities, and interests of the individual is sacrificed on the altar of educational patterns and smoothly operating administrative machinery.

Adequate recognition of the fact of individual variation would practically revolutionize the administrative organization of the school, the organization of the curriculum, and many school practices. The grade organization of the school and the attendant practices in annual or semiannual promotion or failure would be discarded. The curriculum would be organized in sequence and specialized segregated courses would disappear. The practice of prescribing specialized courses regardless of interest, need, or ability would be discontinued. Unfair practices in competitive marking based upon the idea of identical ability to achieve would be displaced. Diagnosis of needs, interests, abilities, and growth of each individual would absorb the time now given to measurement primarily for the purpose of determining the mark to be assigned or deciding whether the unit of credit should be allowed or denied. The function of the teacher as a guide and a helper would overshadow the teacher as a dictator.

5. *Learning activity is more effective when it is purposeful. Learning activities stimulated by external pressures are likely*

to be discontinued as the external pressures are released. What has already been said in relation to the nature of the high-school curriculum would indicate that educational purposing on the part of the teacher is dominated by an inherited curriculum. The problem is to create purposes for engaging in activity dictated by an existing curriculum rather than to let the curriculum be determined by purposes. The life of the student in the school is still farther divorced from purposeful activity. He engages in activity because he is told to do so. If he should ask "Why?" the only honest reply in many phases of the secondary-school program would be in terms of remote purposes. If these are not sufficient, more immediate purposes are stimulated by the utilization of such devices as school marks, credits, and promotion.

Purpose is essential to effective activity. If the purpose is real to the student, external pressures are unnecessary. This does not mean that the student should do only what he may have an initial desire to do. The stimulating and directing of student purposes is an essential responsibility of the teacher.

A few days ago I received a letter from a school superintendent asking for a suggestion in the solution of this problem. He said, "I must confess that my community is very conventional and the teachers still more so. They contend that if report cards and failures are abolished their last means of maintaining discipline and their best form of motivation will be no more." Bigger and better clubs are in demand by such teachers who refuse to look at the source of their problems and are unwilling to question the divine right of subject matter. Curriculum revision, not bigger and better clubs, is the needed solution.

Attention will increasingly be given to the development and recognition of student purposes. Academic problems will give way to real life problems. Devices such as school marks will be displaced by honest attempts to evaluate the growth of the child in an

intelligent and intelligible manner. The elimination of the conventional marking system with its related devices for exerting pressures will probably do more to bring about a modernization of the curriculum than any other single move.

6. Skill-type abilities may be more effectively learned in situations in which their use is needed. The tools of learning are means to ends, not ends in themselves. Things once learned are soon forgotten unless they are used. In various phases of the school program skills are taught largely apart from situations calling for their use. As a result, the student may demonstrate in relatively abstract situations abilities which he may have neither the inclination nor the need to demonstrate in other areas of the curriculum. Language-usage abilities are taught for conscientiously by teachers in English. One hour daily the student must speak and write correctly. Elsewhere in his daily school life little or no attention may be given to correct or effective expression. The equation is taught in algebra so that the student may solve problems in his science class two years later. Arithmetic is taught with great care by the teacher of mathematics who manufactures problems to serve as learning exercises.

Responsibility for the development of these basic skill abilities should not be the assignment of this or that department. They should become the concern of all teachers. Basic skills as in reading, speaking, writing, and arithmetic should be divorced from the departmental organization of the school, and responsibility for their development by students should be assigned to all teachers, assisted, if necessary, by technical assistants. This may lead into the almost inconceivable situation of a teacher without a fixed daily schedule or a teacher without a classroom but the possibility of a mathematics or English teacher working alongside teachers of science and social studies and industrial arts is not impossible and would surely be defensible.

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7. *What the individual does with and how he feels about what he knows is more important than the mere knowledge which may be at his command.* Increasing recognition has been given in recent years to the importance of attitudes, civic habits, appreciations, etc. An appreciation of literature and the development of interests and habits in the reading of good literature have been announced as the essential purpose of the literature program. Citizenship and desirable civic habits and attitudes have been emphasized as the contribution of the social studies. Music is included in the curriculum to promote an appreciation of and an interest in music. Science emphasizes the importance of scientific attitudes and the recognition of principles and generalizations. But when we turn to the program of measurement to determine whether the student should receive credit for his attendance at the literature class, or in the social studies, or music, or others, these functions which have been vocalized so loudly are forgotten. As a measure of his appreciation of literature we have the student write the number 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 to indicate that Kipling was born in: (1) Canterbury, (2) London, (3) Cairo, (4) Bombay, (5) Paris. We measure health by determining whether the student recognizes that the stomach is in the cranium, the abdomen, or the thorax, by placing an X in front of his choice of the three possible answers. In the social studies we measure civic attitudes by having the student complete the statement: There were _____ provisions in the Missouri Compromise.

Measurement has placed its emphasis on primary learnings. Little has been done in the measurement of learning skills, generalizations, attitudes, etc. I am not at all sure that it is necessary to measure the appreciation which the youngster has in music, literature, and the other arts. If we are able to provide an opportunity whereby the student experiences enjoyment in reading, in listening to or performance in music activities, I can see little need for attempting to measure

the appreciation and enjoyments which he has. The measure of his enjoyment of literature is the extent to which he reads in the field of literature when he is no longer under the immediate direction of the teacher. The measure of his civic habits and attitudes is expressed in his social relationships. I do not mean by this that the teacher should not be on the alert and should not strive continuously to do better the task of stimulating appreciations and developing desirable habits and attitudes. Certainly that is fundamental. However, there is little to justify the practice of measuring primary learnings on the assumption that they are adequate indexes of functional values.

CHANGES TO BE ANTICIPATED IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE FUTURE

I have stated and elaborated briefly eight common-sense statements. Administration should serve, not dominate teaching; we should first decide where we want to go before we start; diagnosis must precede treatment; and many others might well be considered. I have selected these eight because they underlie certain fundamental changes which are now under way in the evolution of secondary education. On the assumption that common sense will ultimately prevail, we may anticipate the following changes in secondary education.

1. The college preparatory-academic domination of the curriculum will be discontinued and the curriculum will be determined on the basis of life values.

2. The conventional departmentalization of the curriculum and the organization of courses according to academic patterns will be displaced by a departmentalization based on broad fields of experience.

3. Curricular experiences of students will be sequential; specialized semester and yearly courses will be displaced by a continuous program.

4. Students will participate in the planning of the school program.

5. Individual differences will be given in-

creasing attention not by the multiplication of specialized courses but by the recognition of differences in interests, needs, and abilities within general fields of experience.

6. The conventional grade classification and annual promotion of students will be discarded.

7. The use of the Carnegie unit and similar quantitative measures will be abandoned.

8. Competitive marking systems and school marks will be eliminated; failure will become impossible.

How soon the modernization of secondary education will be realized is difficult to anticipate. It will be realized by evolution, not revolution. In some communities it will proceed rapidly; in others, slowly—depending upon the degree to which members of school staffs assume an intelligent and aggressive attitude in community education. The need for modernization is the challenge to secondary education.

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School Law Review

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LEGAL DEFINITION OF TEACHING

Although the teacher has many duties to perform, one of importance as the person *in loco parentis* is to teach. To teach as defined by the law is "to impart knowledge by means of lessons; to give instructions in; communicating knowledge; introducing into or impressing upon the mind as truth or information," and, legally to advocate means, "to speak in favor of; defend by argument; one who espouses, defends, or vindicates any cause by argument; a pleader, upholder, as an advocate of the oppressed."

According to law there are several ways by which a person may teach or advocate. It need not be from the public platform, or through personal utterance to individuals or groups, but may be done as well through written communications, personal direction, through the public press, or through any means by which information may be disseminated, or it may be done by the adoption of sentiment expressed or arguments made by others which are distributed to others for their adoption and guidance.

A teacher's legal duty is to teach his pupil. He cannot advocate but some of his teaching may be a subtle form of advocacy for all of his teaching may not consist of facts or information. The line between teaching and advocating may not be clearly defined but it would seem that openly to encourage pupils to adopt views which might be antagonistic to general public opinion is not legally the job of the teacher. See *Ex parl Bernat* (D.C. Wash.), 255 F 429, 432.

DUTIES OF TEACHER AND POWER OF TEACHER

The philosophy of the law in respect to the teacher's duties in the school is summarized by the courts in essentially the following language:

Free political institutions are possible only where the great body of the people are moral, intelligent, and habituated to self-control and to obedience to lawful authority. The permanency of such institutions depends largely upon the efficient instruction and training of children in these virtues. It is to secure this permanency that the State provides schools and teachers. School teachers, therefore, have important duties and functions. Much depends upon their ability and skill and faithfulness. They must train as well as instruct their pupils. The acquiring of learning is not the only

object of our public schools. To become good citizens children must be taught self-restraint, obedience, and other civic virtues. To accomplish these desirable ends, the master of a school is necessarily invested with much discretionary power. He is placed in charge sometimes of a large number of children, perhaps of both sexes, of various ages, temperaments, dispositions, and of various degrees of docility and intelligence. He must govern these pupils, quicken the slothful, spur the indolent, restrain the impetuous, and control the stubborn. He must make rules, give commands, and punish disobedience. What rules, what commands, and what punishments shall be imposed are necessarily largely within the discretion of the teacher, where none are defined by the school board.

"One of the most sacred duties of parents is to train up and to qualify their children for becoming useful and virtuous members of society. This duty cannot be effectually performed without the ability to command obedience, to control stubbornness, to quicken diligence, and to reform bad habits; and, to enable him to exercise his salutary sway, he is armed with the power to administer moderate correction, when he shall believe it to be just and necessary." The teacher is the substitute for the parent; is charged in part with the performance of his duties; and, in the exercise of these delegated duties, is invested to that extent only with the same power the parent has. The law has not undertaken to prescribe stated punishments for particular offenses (by a pupil) or methods of teaching or policies of conducting school, but has contented itself with the general grant of the power of moderate correction, and has confided the graduation of punishments, the methods, policies, philosophy of correction, etc., within the limits of this grant, to the discretion of the teacher. See *Patterson v. Nutter* (1886), 78 Me 509; 7 Atl R 273; 57 AmR 18; *State v. Pendergrass*, 2 Dev & B 365; S.C. 31 AmDec 416.

The law gives to teachers power and imposes a duty beyond that of teaching and preserving good order and discipline. It gives to teachers as to parents the power and duty over matters affecting the morals, health, and safety of pupils in the school and it may include mental, physical, and moral training. A teacher may and should do everything his judgment demands should be done

for the welfare of his pupils which is not in any way in conflict with the purposes of the school or opposed to law or rule of the school board. It should be kept in mind that matters affecting the morals of pupils cannot be translated into matters concerning religion or religious belief. All things which may be considered as pertinent to religion are outside of the duties or powers conferred upon a teacher. See *State v. Randall*, 79 MoA 226.

Whether a parent is reasonable or unreasonable in objecting to his children actively or passively participating in the simple religious service conducted by the teacher is, as a matter of law, altogether immaterial. The courts sustain the point of view that some men always have been unreasonable in such matters, and their right to continue to be unreasonable is guaranteed by the constitution and characterized as a natural and infeasible right. The privilege of choosing when, where, and how one shall worship is given unconditionally to every one. He may freely choose his own prayers, songs, and postures; and none of these may be lawfully imposed upon him, either in the public schools or elsewhere, except possibly in the penal, reformatory, or other institutions where the State stands *in loco parentis* to the inmates. The teacher never stands *in loco parentis* to his pupils wherever religious belief is an issue. This is a prerogative that is never delegated in any way to a teacher as such. See *Freeman v. Sheve et al.* (1903), 65 Nebr 853; 91 NW 846; 93 Nebr 169.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The law provides no fixed legal standard of school management or instruction. This is left to the discretion of the teachers and school authorities.

The teacher's sphere of action in this respect is much like that of the parent. The method of instruction is not subject to control or dictation by parents, courts, or outsiders. That is a matter to be left to the wisdom of teacher and school officials who are presumed to know as experts more than those untrained in the profession of teaching or unqualified to act as a teacher.

Student teachers may be used in regular classes without invading the constitutional rights of the pupil. If a regular competent teacher is in charge and sees that the recitations are heard and instruction given according to their judgment, will, and discretion. This involves no delegation of a teacher's power. The student teacher does not assume the rôle of *in loco parentis*. If student teachers are used without this direct and constant supervision it would seem that the use of such student teachers in the position of *in loco parentis* in the public schools would be a direct violation of the

law and an invasion upon the constitutional rights of pupils which could be prevented at the instance of citizens, taxpayers, or other interested persons, unless there was a statute authorizing such instruction. To a certain extent they are *de facto* teachers under the jurisdiction of *de jure* teachers. See *Spedden et al. v. Board of Education*, 74 W.Va. 181; 81 SE 724; 52 LRANS 163.

A SUPERINTENDENT NOT *In Loco Parentis*

A public-school teacher is the only one who can naturally be considered as the qualified *in loco parentis*.

In the eyes of the law, a superintendent of schools is not a teacher. A teacher such as the law contemplates is one who for the time being is *in loco parentis* to the pupil; who, by reason of his frequent and close association with the pupil, has an opportunity to know about the traits which distinguish him from other pupils; and who, therefore, can reasonably be expected to judge more intelligently than the superintendent of schools a pupil's conduct than he otherwise could and more justly measure the punishment or correction he deserves if any.

The duty to maintain order and discipline in the school devolves upon the teachers, not the superintendent of schools. A superintendent of schools may be personally liable for administering any correction of a pupil whether reasonable or unreasonable in the same way that an ordinary outsider or stranger is liable, while the teacher is protected from liability because of her status as *in loco parentis* for reasonable exercise of correction. A superintendent of schools may be authorized to investigate complaints, transfer pupils, suspend pupils, etc., but this gives him no power to invade the domain of the teacher's prerogatives as the *in loco parentis*. The law gives teachers a more important and larger scope of power as the *in loco parentis* than the superintendent of schools or other superiors.

LEGAL RIGHT OF PARENT PARAMOUNT TO TEACHERS

When a child refuses to obey a teacher and, in defiance to the teacher's command, does as he is directed to do by his parent, the teacher is liable for any form of correction or punishment upon the child if the parent has a legal right to command the child against the expressed orders of the teacher. The teacher is not regarded *in loco parentis* so as to negate the lawful commands of a parent or to compel obedience to school regulations which invade the parents' prerogatives which are exclusively reserved by law the parent to exercise. See *Morrow v. Wood* (1874), 35 Wis 59; 17 AmR 471.

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CLASSIFICATION OF POWERS CONCERNING PUBLIC-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Roughly there are four divisions of delegated and undelegated powers concerning the education of children.

1. Those powers delegated exclusively to the teacher as the one regarded as *in loco parentis* during the entire period of the school life of the child, such as methods of instruction, amount of work to be accomplished, general decorum in and about the school, and outside conduct affecting the general welfare of the school.

2. Those partially delegated powers delegated for a specific purpose and for a limited time, such as conduct in the presence of the teacher and all other matters concerning the school which cease as soon as the pupil reaches home, for example, dress, when he shall study, conduct toward outsiders, attendance at special affairs with parents' consent, etc.

3. Those powers not delegated at any time to the teacher, such as selection of subjects to be studied, religious matters, all outside acts not directly affecting the welfare of the school.

4. Those things not within the authority of the teacher because they fail to deal with the legal purposes of education, such as power to compel pupils to run errands, wash blackboards, get drinking water, do manual labor or janitor work, act as school policeman, or monitors for younger children, compel pupils to pay for school property carelessly damaged or destroyed, etc.

In the first classifications of powers the teacher has full authority to use his judgment in a reasonable manner. In the second classifications of powers the teacher is only authorized to use his delegated authority for a limited period of time and for specific purpose. In the third and fourth classifications of powers, the teacher has no legal authority to enforce his will.

The court considers that wherever education is most general, there life and property are the most safe, and civilization of the highest order. The public school is one of the main bulwarks of our nation, and the court would not knowingly do anything to undermine it. In effect the court holds that we should be careful to avoid permitting our love for this noble institution to cause us to regard it as "all in all" and destroy both the God-given and constitutional right of a parent to have some voice in the bringing up and education of his children. We believe in this doctrine of the greatest good to the greatest number, and that the welfare of the individual must give way to the welfare of society in general. The whole current of modern thought and agitation is "onward." The people are beginning to realize as never before that, if we

continue to jog along in the ruts our fathers before us have made, little will be accomplished in the way of national and social improvement. The State is more and more taking hold of the private affairs of individuals, and requiring that they conduct their business affairs honestly and with due regard for the public good. All this is commendable and must receive the sanction of every good citizen. But in this age of agitation, such as the world has never known before, we want to be careful lest we carry the doctrine of governmental paternalism too far, for after all is said and done the prime factor is the American home in the scheme of government.

Our public schools should receive the earnest and conscientious support of every citizen. To that end the school authorities should be upheld in their control and regulation of our school system; but their power and authority should not be unlimited. They should exercise their authority over and their desire to further the best interest of their scholars, with a due regard for the desires and inborn solicitude of the parents of such children. They should not too jealously assert or attempt to defend their supposed prerogatives. If a reasonable request is made by a parent, it should be heeded. See *State ex rel Kelly v. Ferguson* (1914), 95 Neb 63; 144 NW 1039; 50 LRANS 266.

COMMON LAW OF THE SCHOOL

In the school, as in the family, there exists on the part of the pupils the obligation of obedience to lawful commands, subordination, civil deportment, respect for the rights of other pupils, and fidelity to duty. These obligations are inherent in any proper school system, and constitute, so to speak, the common law of the school. Every pupil is presumed to know this law, and is subject to it, whether it has or has not been reenacted by the district board or teacher in the form of written rules and regulations. The law recognizes that it would be impossible to frame rules and regulations which would cover all cases for general management of pupils and the school. The *Corpus Juris* of schools must exist both in the form of written and unwritten law. See *Burpee v. Burton*, 45 Wis 150; 30 AmR 706.

The accepted doctrine is that the general power to take charge of the educational affairs of a district or prescribed territory includes the power to make all reasonable rules and regulations for the discipline, government, and management of the schools within the district or territory for the purposes of promoting education.

But this does not imply that all the rules, orders, and regulations for the discipline, government, and management of the schools shall be

made a matter of record for the board of school control, or that every act, order, or direction affecting the conduct of such schools shall be authorized or confirmed by a formal vote. No system of rules, however carefully prepared, can provide for every emergency or meet every requirement. In consequence, much must necessarily be left to the individual members of the boards of school control and to the superintendent of and the teachers in the several schools.

It follows that any reasonable rule adopted by a superintendent through the authority of the board of school control, or principal or a teacher as *in loco parentis* with or without the authority of the board of school control, not inconsistent

with some statute, or some other rule prescribed by higher authority, is binding upon the public. See *Fertich v. Michener* (1887), 111 Ind 472; 11 NE 605; 14 NE 68; 60 AmR 709.

MISTAKES IN JUDGMENT

The recognized doctrine of the law is that a school officer or teacher is not personally liable for a mere mistake of judgment in the government of the school. To make him so liable it must be shown that he acted in the matter complained of wantonly, willfully, and maliciously. See *Fertich v. Michener* (1887), 111 Ind 472; 11 NE 605; 14 NE 68; 60 AmR 709.

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Book Reviews

Philip W. L. Cox, *Review Editor*

The Stated Aims and Purposes of the Departments of Military Science and Tactics, and Physical Education in the Land-Grant Colleges of the United States, by WILLARD L. NASH. Contributions to Education, No. 614, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Dr. Nash has weighed the physical-education provisions for men in the land-grant colleges of the United States and found them wanting. The physical training which they offer is not, Dr. Nash states, the equivalent of an all-round program of physical education. Not only do many institutions require no physical education of those taking the military courses, but the military courses expect to achieve their physical-training aim from drill and formal calisthenics. He asks "... is such a type of training advisable for students who are to enter a society of increasing leisure, and little of big-muscle activity? In view of the mechanization of culture resulting in nervous depletion and also in increasing leisure, it should be the function of a physical-education program to build up habits of relaxation, play, and recreation rather than mere physical strength and habits of automatic reaction."

Previous to 1923 military courses were compulsory in all of the land-grant colleges. In that year the University of Wisconsin placed them on an elective basis. Perhaps this act, which was upheld by the Federal Attorney General and the Department of the Interior, is a first step toward a reorganization of physical education in the land-grant colleges. Dr. Nash feels, however, that real reform will not come until the general public has a clearer conception of the problem. Unfortunately, the preparedness issue and its patriotic implications are likely to make public education on this problem a slow process. All of which does not mean that studies such as Dr. Nash's are fruitless—on the contrary, quite necessary.

H. H.

You and Machines, by W. F. OGBURN. Washington: The American Council on Education, 1935, 55 pages, 15 cents.

This is the pamphlet prepared for reading and study in the Citizen's Conservation Corps that was rejected by the Assistant Director, Robert Fechner, on the ground that it might induce pessimism among the young men. While it is regrettable that the young men of the CCC are not to

read and ponder this lively and challenging book, there may be some gain from the stupid act of Mr. Fechner, provided his officiousness becomes a byword as it should. The incident might be even more valuable if it should serve as a *reductio ad absurdum* of the efforts of adults—even of teachers—to protect youths from hearing the truth about the technical world in which they live.

Problems and Practices in Housing the Junior College Program in California, by CECIL DONALD HARDESTY. Southern California Educational Monographs No. 3, 1933-1934 Series, Los Angeles, California: University of Southern California Press.

At a time when the separate housing of the junior college is so much under discussion, this practical piece of research comes as a valuable contribution. The author deals with the housing problem in relation to the functions and curricula of the junior college. Methods of investigation used are (1) a thorough review of the literature of related investigations; (2) a questionnaire or check sheet supplemented by visitation to more than half of the institutions studied; and (3) data on size of classes obtained from registrars' offices.

Some of the chief conclusions of the study favor separate housing especially where enrollment reaches four hundred or more; in situations where the two-year junior college has fewer than four hundred students it is recommended that the four-year type of organization be considered, and where high school and junior college use the same plant it is suggested that one administrator be placed in charge of the entire organization with an assistant to whom he may delegate the responsibility of conducting the junior college; that in such cases the library serve both institutions, but that separate reading or study rooms be maintained; that increased attention be given toward making the library the educational center of the institution. Increased attention to the terminal function of the junior college is also recommended.

The auxiliary reviews of the literature of other research topics, each as class size, are very thoroughly done.

J. O. C.

An Experimental Study of the Effect of the Use of the Typewriter on Beginning Reading, by CECILIA E. UNZICKER. Teachers

College Contributions to Education No. 610, 1934.

This report of a careful investigation on the use of typewriters by first-grade children shows that progress in reading was favorably affected by typewriting under guidance. But it is noteworthy that the gains were most pronounced for children having I.Q.'s below 90. This suggests that the typewriter might be a useful aid to remedial work in reading. The results should reassure teachers who fear that attention to letters and words in typewriting will interfere with large eye span and good comprehension of thought units.

Preceding the experiment the writer gives an excellent historical survey of successive methods for teaching reading and writing. The use of typewriters by children has been advocated since the machines were put on the market in 1874, but it is only within the last few years that their practical value in the elementary grades has been studied.

B. P.

New Horizons for the Child, by STANWOOD COBB. Washington, D.C.: Avalon Press, 1934, 212 pages.

An encouragingly sane interpretation of progressive procedures in education has come from the pen of the one man who, more than any other single

person, was responsible for bringing into being what is today our most fearless, promising, and professional organization; namely, the Progressive Education Association. This volume, while elementary in its treatment in spots, does in the main present a stimulating discussion of what progressive education really is. The treatment naturally is delightfully enriched by the author's abundant experiences in liberalizing school education.

While an accepted tenet is that the child is an active being and that he develops through experience yet "we cannot possibly do all the things we want or need to know. Activity projects can be helpful in motivating our study and in preparing us to understand what we read. But nine tenths . . . what we moderns know comes to us from the printed page . . . we cannot afford to let activity crowd out the functions of abstract education. Certain things can be learned much better through doing than thinking, but other things can be learned only through thinking" (pp. 119-120).

Whether the reader finds himself agreeing in whole or only in part, the discussion will stimulate thought along pleasant channels. The child emphasis (to the virtual absence of any social emphasis) that permeates the entire volume is indicated by a few chapter headings: Understanding the Child, The Behavior of the Child, Character Train-

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ing. The Child at Home, The Child as an Individual, The Child as an Active Being, The Child as a Creative Being, Training Children to Think.

F. C. B.

The Story of The Paris Pact, by ARTHUR CHARLES WATKINS. Washington, D.C.: National Printing Press, 1934, ix + 149 pages.

This is a handbook for students of "the higher citizenship" put out by the National Student Forum. The purpose of the pamphlet is to cause public opinion in the United States in favor of the recent Treaty for the Renunciation of War commonly called The Paris Pact. It is suitable for adult reading and especially adapted to the use of high-school classes in American history.

The booklet consists of 136 pages divided into ten parts dealing with such topics as History of the Pact, The Organization of the Pact, The Pact and the League Covenant, and Teaching International Relations in the Light of the Pact.

The author assumes it is an obligation of social institutions to help mold public opinion in favor of such treaties as the Paris Pact—justly so.

C. M. BENNETT

High School English Practice Books, I and II, by MARGARET GILLUM and BLANCHE WELLONS. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 126 and 122 pages, respectively, 40 cents each book.

These practice books are designed to go with a regular text, *High School English*, Books I and II, but they will serve as practice aid for any course in English mechanics. The arrangement of the sheets and the answers is a device to lead the student into self-help. This reduces the drudgery the teacher must undergo and at the same time promotes interest and self-reliance in the student. There are good pre-tests and mastery tests with each unit. The work covers the minimum requirements of mechanics.

G. R. CERVENY

The Control of State-Supported Teacher-Training Programs for Negroes, by FELTON G. CLARK. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, v + 113 pages, \$1.50.

This study makes a comprehensive investigation of present plans of control of publicly supported agencies for the training of Negro teachers, and

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suggests a scheme for obtaining the most desirable results. The author finds that, due either to indifference to or ignorance of the problems involved in the training of Negro teachers, administrators of Negro education do not depend upon valid sources for needed information. On the other hand, it is found that in 1932 seventy-six pieces of research, dealing either directly or indirectly with Negro education, were completed in American colleges and universities.

Nine different plans of control exist for the government of the twenty-nine State-supported institutions which are engaged in the preparation of Negro teachers. Ten of these twenty-nine institutions are controlled by their own separate board of trustees. Investigation of all control plans now in use shows a need for better coordination, and for more conscious direction toward stated objectives.

This study should be of general interest to those concerned with the control of publicly supported teacher-training institutions, and should prove indispensable to students and administrators engaged in the work of higher education for Negroes.

A. HENINGSBURG

The March of Man, edited by ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, ISAAC J. COX, AND LAWRENCE

H. DAWSON. New York: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., 1935, list price, \$12.00.

The authorship of this work is attributed to George Philip, Ramsay Muir, and Robert McElroy. The present volume is the American revision of the English edition published about a year ago. It is in three parts: historical atlas maps, of which there are some two hundred thirty, in color; "time charts," of which there are seven; and historical illustrations (photogravure), of which there are sixty-four plates. It is substantially bound in a dark red simulated morocco.

The volume is essentially a reference work, a supplement to the encyclopedia and the political atlas. It is, presumably, accurate in the information it presents—Professor Hart's editorship should attest this much. In the history classes in our secondary schools, especially in the senior-high-school grades, the historical atlas should earn its way. In a private library it would be a luxury item of the kind that few school teachers permit themselves.

The March of Man, whatever its genesis, is in step with the present demand for integration of subject matter. Too frequently we set up a program in which we teach history today and geography tomorrow, as though they were two subjects instead of two lenses for one pair of spectacles

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through which to see the world. The time charts, while not entirely an innovation, appear to be the most valuable section of this work. They present in parallel columns, each separately colored, the chronological outline of history of a country or group of countries geographically, historically, or ethnographically allied to each other. It is expected that the time charts, maps, and pictures will be used together, and for this reason they are cross-referenced.

The photogravures were selected, obviously, for their historical interest. The emphasis is on portraits of "men of destiny." Considering what liberties artists, even those with a camera, have taken with some of their illustrious subjects, the photogravure section of this work is somewhat shorter on science and longer on sentiment than the other sections. That is, it would be interesting but of little real advantage to know what Cleopatra looked like; it is somewhat less interesting and of scarcely any advantage to know what some artist thought Cleopatra should have looked like. But history teachers are not without sentiment, and they will like these pictures.

J. C. D.

Sixty Alphabets, by W. Benjamin Hunt and Edward C. Hunt. Milwaukee: The Bruce

Publishing Company, 1935, 120 pages, \$1.50.

This review, if it is to have any value for our readers, must be written in two parts, the first to those who know very little about the anatomy of letters and care very little about quality in alphabets, the second to those who know letters through the practice of the art of lettering or at least have an active appreciation of good letters, good alphabets, and good type.

For this first group, *Sixty Alphabets* will be a useful book in providing a short cut to a knowledge of what is good quality in lettering. There are seven pages of text, illustrated, where the authors epitomize almost everything that is fundamental in this applied art that is rooted in practices centuries old and yet subject to subtle modifications through every day of this modern present. The authors provide a geometrical analysis of the anatomy of the Roman alphabet, which is the fundamental on which the modern designer rings the endless variety of changes. In sixty well-selected alphabets, the authors provide a history of the art of lettering and a source book for those who choose to do some experimenting on their own account.

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advertising layout, printing, or any of the other fields requiring a technical knowledge of letters, this revision of an earlier successful book by the Hunts will be valuable out of all proportion to the cost. There are seven hundred other books of letters, but this one seems to be made up with more discrimination than most of the others. Its modern alphabets are useful because they are not modernistic. The Hunt brothers demonstrate on every page that they have the *feel* for letters in the rarest degree.

Reviewing this book provides a great temptation to go off on a sermon concerning the great importance of teaching lettering to everyone. It is assuredly one of the most practical arts, and this world would be a better place in which to live if there were more people qualified to insist on better letters, better alphabets, and the use of the excellent type now available.

J. C. D.

Handbook of the Heavens, by Hupert J. Bernhard, Dorothy A. Bennett, and Hugh S. Rice. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935, 131 pages, \$1.00.

The Hayden Planetarium was opened to the public this fall in New York City as an addition to the already extensive plant of the American Museum of Natural History. The authors are associated with the museum and the planetarium and with the Junior Astronomy Club of the Museum, and the book contains contributions from a

dozen other members of the club. Professor Harlow Shapley writes a brief forward in which he congratulates amateur astronomers on their "unearthly interests" and warns them not to take the science too seriously, not to move over too soon into the professional row. "As an avocation, there is nothing more mind-cleansing than astronomy; as a profession, it is a hard master."

The book is generously illustrated with photographs, charts, sky maps, and figures. The text starts out with elemental information about asteroids, planets, constellations and such and continues to a point far beyond the knowledge of most of us who have not made an intensive study of astronomy. There is a readable chapter on the use of the telescope and another on the use of the camera with the telescope. The price of the book recommends it, especially in view of the quality of the text as attested by its sponsorship.

Come depression, come prosperity, there are always stars. It is a queer commentary on our educational practice that the heavens, known so intimately by the shepherds and the sailors and the woodsmen through all time, should be given such short shrift in our curricula. It is by some subtle irony, maybe, that our generation is rediscovering the greatest spectacle of our natural world by the means of artificial stars mechanically projected on an artificial sky. No matter; whether it is by experience with stars in the raw or stars in cellophane, this new interest is a wholesome one.

J. C. D.

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